

# **Sociology and Social ... Research ...**

## **AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL**

**Responsibilities in Sociological Research . 367**  
**ALFRED McCLUNG LEE**

**Ethnic Attitudes in the Arab Near East . 375**  
**E. T. PROTHRO AND L. H. MELIKIAN**

**Labor under Review: 1952 . . . . . 380**  
**MELVIN J. VINCENT**

**Institution Membership and Class Levels . 390**  
**ODELL UZZELL**

**The Field of Social Work . . . . . 395**  
**HERBERT STROUP**

**Marital Adjustment in a Minority Population 399**  
**CHARLES E. KING**

**Student Travelways . . . . . 403**  
**EMORY S. BOGARDUS**

**Pacific Sociological Notes . . . . . 408**

**Social Theory . . . . . 409**

**Social Welfare . . . . . 419**

**Peoples and Culture . . . 415**

**Other Books Received . . 429**

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## RESPONSIBILITIES AND PRIVILEGES IN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

ALFRED McCLUNG LEE\*

*Brooklyn College of the City of New York*

As policymakers turn more and more to sociological researchers for aid in their decision processes, sociology moves into an increasingly important and exposed position. This is a penalty of success and not of failure, and sociologists should therefore gladly accept the consequent responsibilities.

The standards and ethics of sociological research have become matters of grave discussion in business and public policy journals, newsmagazines, and newspapers. As this probing and analyzing goes forward, the careless and the destructive will say many unfair and unwarranted things about sociologists, and these attacks will require handling as each case appears to indicate. But the careful and constructive are also making incisive and warranted criticisms of sociologists. Sociologists would therefore now do well to develop as clear and acceptable ethical agreements as possible concerning sociological research practice. These will necessarily include the formulation of reasonable criteria for making a claim to being called a "sociologist" and possibly also for being called a "social engineer" or a "social research technician." Only with such understandings among sociologists can we hope to meet—within and without the profession—attacks of a substantial and justified nature. I am not speaking of meeting these attacks in any way other than by public discussion. In my estimation, the drive to make so-called scientific societies into legally protected guilds is a tendency likely to be more destructive of scientific values than beneficial to them.

My purpose here is to outline what appear to me and apparently to many other sociologists to be crucial problems in standards and ethics for sociological research practice. It is not to present a codification based upon specific cases, such as the American Psychological Association's committee<sup>1</sup> has been developing, as useful as that effort may turn out to

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\*The author is President Elect, Society for the Study of Social Problems. Since 1951 he has been Chairman, Committee on Standards and Ethics in Research Practice, American Sociological Society.

<sup>1</sup>Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology, American Psychological Association, "Ethical Standards in Research," *American Psychologist*, 6: 427, 436-43, 1951. This is part of a series on "Ethical Standards for Psychology," *American Psychologist*, 5: 620-26, 1950; 6: 57-64, 145-66, 427-52, 626-61, 1951. See also Nicholas Hobbs, "The Development of a Code of Ethical Standards for Psychology," *American Psychologist*, 3: 80-84, 1948.

be. I hope that the American Sociological Society can come to that procedure shortly. We need it. The present effort is also not to present what might be called minimum trade practices to which all academic and non-academic sociologists might without inconvenience subscribe and even adhere.<sup>2</sup> I trust that my points are of sufficient significance to serve as stimuli for further discussion.

Either we sociologists or our critics will sooner or later turn out what amounts to a code of ethics and standards for sociological researchers. If we do so and if we find acceptable democratic methods to implement that code, we will save ourselves considerable trouble in the future at the hands of political and other popular spokesmen and of competitors. We really have little choice either as to the type of ethics and standards or as to the type of implementation we must choose. They are those common to democratic scientific bodies in this country.

For the purposes of this report, I shall attempt to outline certain problems sociologists now face in connection with their responsibilities (1) as professionals (a) in academic research and teaching and (b) in practical research, application, and counseling. I shall also touch upon aspects of our responsibilities (2) to the liberal academic traditions of our society, (3) to students, (4) to colleagues, and (5) to financial sources. Sociologists also have, concomitant with these responsibilities and as a part of our societal traditions, certain privileges (6) as professionals, (7) as sociologists, (8) as members of academic communities, and (9) as members of nonacademic organizations.

1. *Responsibilities of sociological researchers as professionals.* Sociologists share responsibilities with other professionals in Western society. Personally and through our professional societies, we are obliged to regard sociology as a trust for which we are answerable to society, to accept the societal anticipation that sociology exists to serve mankind and not merely as the preserve of a monopolistic guild, and to maintain adequate and sufficiently flexible standards of professional training and control so that the profession may constantly fulfill its functions more satisfactorily and in terms of constantly changing life conditions.

The inclusion of two major types of professionals in sociology—the academic and the nonacademic—creates a constant confusion of the duties and rights of each. But let me define briefly what I am taking “academic” and “nonacademic” or “practical” to mean. Those (a) in academic research and teaching are sociologists who accept stable but limited financial returns in order to have relative freedom to work for the development of

<sup>2</sup> See the author's “Implications of Opinion Survey Standards,” *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 13:645-52, 1949-50.



sociology as a science and a profession. These sociologists find employment in colleges and universities, occasionally in other educational institutions, and in other foundations. To be satisfied with such work and to be productive in research, they need to have at least a degree of dedication to nonpecuniary rewards. Even though they may devote a large share of their time to teaching, those who are alert professionals give as much of their time as they can to scientific research. Those (b) in practical research, application, and counseling are sociologists who usually receive somewhat higher pay and serve industrial, financial, governmental, political party, trade association, trade union, social work, and other civic agencies. They may contribute to sociology as a science and a profession, but these are not their primary concerns. Their especial objects are to use their sociological training and experience to aid in the solution of practical policy and operational problems.

The relationship between the academic and the practical in sociology is thus similar—in theory at least—to that between physics and applied mechanics or mechanical engineering, between physiology and medicine or physiotherapy, and between scientific psychology and psychiatry, clinical psychology, psychiatric social work, or some other specialty. Individual sociologists may well go back and forth between the academic and the practical, but the confusion of academic and practical roles may destroy the traditional values, responsibilities, and immunities of the academic in the development of sociology and of social science generally.

As I see it, the chief problem sociologists now should face as professionals is the commercial erosion of their academic segment. This is seen principally in domination of university sociology departments by problem-solving research bureaus.<sup>3</sup> Many of our sociology departments in leading universities are now actively competing for research funds both with university social engineering departments (including journalism, marketing, and public relations) and also with commercial and governmental agencies. They no longer devote much of their time or that of their students to scientific sociological problems, problems of concern to mankind rather than merely and directly of service to special interests.<sup>4</sup> This is a development with many consequences for standards and ethics, but,

<sup>3</sup> For a sympathetic account of the implications of this change, see Charles Y. Glock, "Some Implications of Organization for Social Research," Publication No. A 129 of the Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, *Social Forces*, 30: 129-34, 1951-52.

<sup>4</sup> See the author's "Subsidies for Sociological Research," pp. 407-11 in his *Readings in Sociology* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1951) and his "Individual and Organizational Research in Sociology," *American Sociological Review*, 16: 701-07, 1951.

like other matters touched upon in this paper, it is my purpose here merely to point to such problems in a brief manner.

2. *Responsibilities of sociological researchers to the liberal academic traditions of our society.* All learning owes a debt to the liberal academic traditions of our society that "practical professors" and "practical researchers" too often prefer to shrug off. In a recent *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, to illustrate, a Professor of Education<sup>5</sup> asserts disparagingly that the "thinking of the liberal arts professor is naturally conditioned by the fact that he is a present-day representative of the tradition of the European university. The aim of his whole professional life is the development of scholarship and culture in accord with that tradition." He should also have said and understood that he meant science and art as well as scholarship and culture.

The ethical problem is thus, in my estimation, especially this: How can we give the rapidly multiplying practical sociologists a due regard for the value of the academic traditions which have made our colleges and universities relatively so free of restraint and thus so fertile in the stimulation of productive research? This question applies to practical sociologists both inside and outside academic employment.

3. *Responsibilities of sociological researchers to their students.* Rationalizations for the callous exploitation of students are much too readily available among academic rationalizers. To their students, sociologists have responsibilities they do not always assume or even recognize.

When a capable student enrolls in a graduate department of sociology, he usually does not expect to find himself forced to be a research drudge as part of the price for a degree. He does not anticipate having to give evidence of assimilation into a sociological sect or cult as a prerequisite for the Ph.D. He hopes to be encouraged to grow and mature in his search for sociological knowledge and recognition. If he has any promise as a social scientist, he looks forward to an opportunity to do an independent and fairly comprehensive piece of research for his dissertation, not a prescribed contribution to a professor's subsidized problem-solving research.

Sociologists have, in my estimation, an ethical responsibility to help train scientific researchers and to avoid the maintenance of a cultlike or sectarian atmosphere in their academic departments. As a part of this, they have no right, as I view the matter, to regard graduate students as a cheap source of research assistance. This stultifies research, provides

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<sup>5</sup> Edwin H. Reeder, "The Quarrel between Professors of Academic Subjects and Professors of Education: An Analysis," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, 37: 506-21, 1951, pp. 508-09 quoted.

unfair competition for commercial sociological research agencies, and degrades the experiences of graduate students.

4. *Responsibilities of sociological researchers to their colleagues.* Sociologists have a responsibility for the maintenance of relations with their senior and junior colleagues upon a level of professional dignity and integrity. The American Association of University Professors and the Academic Freedom Committee of the American Civil Liberties Union have sketched out standards for professional responsibility, dignity, and integrity among teachers which, as I see it, ought to be applied very closely also to sociologists in their interrelations as researchers, whether academic or other. I shall not repeat the recommendations of those organizations because I trust they are well known.<sup>6</sup>

Among colleagues, one of the greatest responsibilities is to act fairly in the division of credit between co-workers, senior and junior staff members, and students. The A.P.A. Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology<sup>7</sup> has promulgated a very cogent statement of principle on this, which sociologists should most carefully consider. Here are some especially useful sentences from that statement:

Credit should be assigned to all those who have contributed to a publication, in proportion to their contributions, and only to these; and the nature of the contribution (e.g., research design, collection of data, writing) should be made clear. . .

A student or staff member who locates his own problem and receives only minor professional help from his sponsor or employer should publish under his own name and acknowledge the help of the professor or employer. . .

The statement attributing credit for different features of a research project should be as extensive as fairness and a proper regard for fact require. Lack of space is not sufficient justification for abridgement.

5. *Responsibilities of sociological researchers to their financial sources.* The problem here is usually that of sociologists exhibiting too great a sense of responsibility—even of servility—rather than not enough. Actually, the dividing line in our society between hirelings and professionals is not a precise one. This lack of distinctness troubles many professionals as well as would-be professionals inside and outside sociology. But the distinction between the overwilling prostitutes who will sell anything and the dignified and responsible professionals who will not compromise beyond a certain minimum is an easily recognizable one. And those who purchase or subsidize research know this distinction very well. They buy or subsidize the work of willing hirelings for certain purposes, largely propagandistic, and have contempt for it, and they go to ethical professionals when they have a problem upon which they need enlightenment.

<sup>6</sup> The current revisions of their statements are available as separates from both organizations.

<sup>7</sup> *American Psychologist*, 6: 445-46, 1951.

After this brief once-over of responsibilities of sociological researchers, let me turn to my second major group of points, those dealing with privileges.

6. *Privileges of sociological researchers as professionals.* Sociologists have privileges as professionals to the extent that they are able to identify themselves with the most highly regarded professional traditions of our society. Only to that extent will they be accorded full professional privileges.

The anxiety expressed by many sociologists and social psychologists concerning the possible damage to social science from the 1948 poll fiasco arose from a misconception of the nature of professionalism and professional prestige in our society. The highly commercialized and subservient pollsters have never achieved any degree of professional prestige nor, in their present type of operation, especially as again illustrated in the 1952 election campaign, are they likely to. What prestige they have derives from their propagandistic usefulness.<sup>8</sup> Their embarrassment in 1948 and again in 1952 may have raised, and it certainly did not lower, the prestige of social scientists.<sup>9</sup>

7. *Privileges of sociological researchers as sociologists.* The members of our profession have and will have privileges such as they earn collectively and individually for themselves. The introduction of the A.P.A. Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology to its statement on "Maintaining Standards of Competence in Psychological Work"<sup>10</sup> is highly relevant to our discussion at this point. As the committee puts it, "The public confidence which psychologists now enjoy has been won by substantial achievements in scientific research, by creative writing and teaching, and by offering professional service of high quality. This confidence can be sustained and furthered only by constant attention to all of the factors that lead to competence in a profession." Sociologists might well examine the extent to which and just how they have succeeded in building confidence among various publics in their work.

8. *Privileges of sociological researchers as members of academic communities.* Sociologists have more privileges in many respects as members of academic communities than they have as sociologists or as social scientists. In spite of the anti-intellectualism so common in our society, "professors" are given a degree of respect and prestige exceeded only by a few such other social categories as high-ranking government of-

<sup>8</sup> See such propollster stories as Robert Bendiner's "Political Pollsters: Can They Predict This Year's Election?" in *Collier's*, 130: 6: 52-55, August 9, 1952.

<sup>9</sup> See the author's "Implementation of Opinion Survey Standards," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 13: 645-52, 1949-50.

<sup>10</sup> *American Psychologist*, 6: 636-37 quoted, 1951.

ficials and physicians, and "professors" tie "scientists." "Sociologists" as such are somewhat below these but do outrank "economists."<sup>11</sup> In commenting upon this situation, Robert K. Merton and Daniel Lerner<sup>12</sup> observe: "The prestige of the social scientists, on a national scale, would seem to be diminished by affiliation with the business community." The gains, they contend, are largely "in the personal environment—of the sort generated by the acquisition of a large house, new car, or uniformed maid" and in a kind of professional "admiration (usually whispered rather than proclaimed) for the man of knowledge who is enough of an 'operator' to influence men of affairs."

The popular prestige of sociology thus derives especially from the identification of the field with scientists and professors of academic communities and with the nonpecuniarily oriented ethics of science and education. It is unnecessary to dwell further on this point than to emphasize again the dangerous commercial erosion of academic sociology departments and staff members now taking place. In the oldest human tradition, sociologists are trying to have their ethical cake and to eat it commercially as well.

9. *Privileges of sociological researchers as members of nonacademic organizations.* When they are members of nonacademic organizations, sociologists at the present time possess chiefly the privileges given them as members of the American business or governmental community. They can gain substantially through helping to develop standards of merit for a semiautonomous profession and by adhering to them rather than to the mores of commerce or politics.

Sociologists should know that actually no professional group "makes" a code for itself in any effective or creative sense. The group can do a more or less accurate, a more or less vague job of writing down what society at a given time and place in a minimal sense apparently expects from that group. A code of ethics is a societal product, and whatever implementation it gets is due quite largely to environmental and societal pressures. As sociologists, we should have sufficient foresight and sufficient sensitivity to societal needs and tendencies to act before politicians have an opportunity to make political capital out of our delinquencies.

The major difference in emphasis of sociology and psychology probably makes sociology more subject to criticism in the future and its practitioners more open to investigation than psychology and psychologists.

<sup>11</sup> National Opinion Research Center Survey No. 244 (September 1, 1947) or digest thereof in *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 11: 658-64, esp. pp. 658-59, 1947-48.

<sup>12</sup> "Social Scientists and Research Policy," Chap. 16 in *The Policy Sciences: Recent Developments in Scope and Method*, ed. by Lerner and H. D. Lasswell (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1951), p. 286 quoted.



After all, sociology has to do with social institutions and with other matters touching upon the social order and its stability or lack of stability.<sup>13</sup> Psychology places primary emphasis in a much less controversial area—as controversy now counts and rages—that of individuals and more immediate interpersonal relations.

Unfortunately, sociologists have never been notable for their application of social knowledge to their own affairs. It is likely that it will require another depression period or its equivalent to convince sociologists that standards and ethics in sociology demand top priority in professional planning. Such a period would quite possibly bring with it sharp and maybe embarrassing investigations of tax-free foundations and enterprises and of allegations of scientific impartiality and objectivity by sociologists and others claiming special privileges and authority as scientists. On the other hand, if we do not have another such period of re-examination shortly, the managerial technicians and their pecuniarily oriented mores will further submerge the scientific spirit in sociology.

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<sup>13</sup> See the trenchant discussion of social science ethics in W. H. Whyte, Jr., and others, *Is Anybody Listening?* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1952), esp. Chaps. 10 and 11.

## GENERALIZED ETHNIC ATTITUDES IN THE ARAB NEAR EAST

E. T. PROTHRO and L. H. MELIKIAN

*American University of Beirut*

One of the most significant discoveries which American psychologists have made in the field of ethnic attitudes is that such attitudes are highly generalized. That is, individuals who are hostile toward some ethnic groups are more likely to be hostile toward other groups, while individuals who manifest little prejudice toward some groups are less likely to show prejudice toward other groups. Recently there has been considerable study of the type of person who is generally prejudiced, ethnocentric, hostile toward members of other groups. Much of this work was inspired by the publication of *The Authoritarian Personality*.<sup>1</sup> In the words of one reviewer,<sup>2</sup> "evidence from a number of sources . . . continues to support and elaborate on the findings of California investigators." All of this evidence, however, drew from American and European studies.

Are these familiar observations regarding the nature of prejudice in America applicable in non-Western cultures? Or are they culture bound, inapplicable in a different setting? In an effort to answer this and related questions we studied some of the ethnic attitudes of university students in a highly ethnocentric culture—that of the Arab Near East.

*Background.* There is strong experimental evidence for the generalized nature of ethnic responses in America. The Hartleys<sup>3</sup> mention three major approaches which they believe to have yielded convincing evidence. First is the split-half correlation of ratings on the Bogardus Social Distance Scale when there are a considerable number of ethnic groups to be rated. Murphy and Likert<sup>4</sup> found such correlations to be around .90, which clearly indicated that response to half of the groups could be predicted from knowledge of response to the other groups. They interpreted this finding as demonstrating the existence of a generalized tolerance-intolerance factor.

A second approach to this question was devised by Hartley,<sup>5</sup> who

<sup>1</sup> T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswick, D. J. Levinson, and E. Sanford, R. N., *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950).

<sup>2</sup> M. Brewster Smith, "Social Psychology and Group Processes," *Annual Review of Psychology*, 3:194, 1952.

<sup>3</sup> E. L. and Ruth Hartley, *Fundamentals of Social Psychology* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1952) p. 699.

<sup>4</sup> G. Murphy and R. Likert, *Public Opinion and the Individual* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1938).

<sup>5</sup> E. L. Hartley, *Problems in Prejudice* (New York: King's Crown Press, 1946).

included three fictitious groups in a list of 35 ethnic groups to be rated. He found correlations of .80 and above between mean social distance score for the 32 existing groups and mean score for the 3 nonexistent groups. This again seemed to indicate that attitudes were a function of the respondent and not a function of the stimulus.

Campbell<sup>6</sup> has criticized both of these approaches on grounds that they measure a "halo effect" rather than a general tolerance-intolerance factor. The approach of Adorno *et al.*<sup>7</sup> is not vulnerable to this criticism. They not only found a high degree of relationship between scales of attitudes toward Jews, Negroes, and other minorities but proceeded to isolate the personality elements associated with high and low ethnocentrism. Moreover, they constructed a scale which would measure the extent to which an individual had an "authoritarian personality." This scale did not include items on attitudes toward minorities, so the high correlation between it and the ethnocentrism scales was not a result of "halo."

All the above studies were made in the United States, but there is some evidence for generalization of attitudes in England. In a factor analysis of social attitudes, Eysenck and Crown<sup>8</sup> found that responses to items on attitudes toward various national groups were interrelated.

There has been some investigation of social distance in the Near East. It has been shown that there is a pattern of ethnic preference here just as there is in the United States, although the pattern is not the same in the two cultures. The local hierarchy of preference reveals itself in studies both of social distance<sup>9</sup> and of stereotypes.<sup>10</sup> The pattern has been fairly stable for the past decade, although, as in America, it is influenced by such major social events as national conflicts. The group norm around which attitudes vary is less favorable than the anchorage point in America. The mean social distance from almost all national and religious groups is just on the favorable side of the neutral point. Indeed, ethnocentrism here appears to be quite a different phenomenon from ethnocentrism in America. The United States is a melting pot in which assimilation is the rule, and differences between groups are bases for discriminatory treatment in the general competition of economic and

<sup>6</sup> D. T. Campbell, "The Bogardus Social Distance Scale," *Sociology and Social Research*, 36: 322-25, 1952.

<sup>7</sup> Adorno *et al.*, *op. cit.*

<sup>8</sup> H. J. Eysenck and S. Crown, "National Stereotypes: An Experimental and Methodological Study," *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, 2:29, 1948.

<sup>9</sup> S. C. Dodd, "A Social Distance Test in the Near East," *American Journal of Sociology*, 41:194-204, 1935.

<sup>10</sup> E. T. Prothro and L. Melikian, "National Stereotypes of Students in the Near East," *Journal of Sociological Psychology*. In press.

social life. In the Near East, as Coon has pointed out,<sup>11</sup> "each group preserves its ethnic personality, while daily inter-group contacts seem to place a premium on accentuating these differences, as part of the ethnic division of labor, which is the key to the whole social system." Social distance, then, does not serve the same function in different cultures. Consequently, it seems possible that the personality factors involved in ethnocentrism might differ in different cultures.

In this study we have applied to students of the Arab Near East the three experimental techniques which indicated in America that ethnic attitudes had a generalized component.

*Method.* Two groups of subjects were used. The first group consisted of 130 regularly enrolled sophomore and junior students from the American University of Beirut. All of these students were from the Arab Near East—Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, Iraq, Bahrein Island. There were 70 Christians and 60 Moslems, only 10 of the 130 were female, and their mean age at last birthday was 19.6 years.

The second group of subjects was drawn from students attending summer courses at the American University. Of the 102 students, 42 were Lebanese, 17 Jordanians and Palestinians, 15 Saudi Arabs, 12 Syrians, and the remainder were from Iraq, Kuwait, Bahrein Island, and Egypt. There were 53 Moslems and 49 Christians, mean age at last birthday was 21.7 years, and only 13 of the subjects were female.

During the regular school term the larger group had taken a 22-item version<sup>12</sup> of the "authoritarian personality" scale. Later they filled out the Dodd Social Distance Scale.<sup>13</sup> This scale is adapted from the well-known Bogardus Social Distance Scale but has 5 intervals which have been demonstrated to be equidistant by the Thurstone technique. It requests ratings of both national groups and religious groups. The national groups rated were Japanese, Lebanese, Sudanese, Syrian, Saudi Arabian, Turk, American, Chinese, Egyptian, French, Iraqi. Religious groups were Armenian Orthodox, Druze, Greek Orthodox, Jew, Maronite, Protestant, Roman Catholic, Sunni Moslem, Shi'ite Moslem. Both scales were filled out anonymously, but a private identification number was used by the student so that it was possible to compare responses on the different scales.

<sup>11</sup> C. S. Coon, *Caravan: The Story of the Middle East* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1951), p. 169.

<sup>12</sup> Prothro and Melikian, "The California Public Opinion Scale in an Authoritarian Culture" (unpublished ms.).

<sup>13</sup> Dodd, *op. cit.*

The 102 summer students were asked to rate 20 nationalities on the 5-point Dodd scale. The following nationalities were rated: Americans, Canadians, Congo Negroes, English, Ethiopians, French, Germans, Greeks, Indians (Hindus), Italians, Japanese, Jews, Pakistanis, Pireans, Poles, Russians, Scotch, Spanish, Turks, Wallonians. (The Pireans and Wallonians are two of the nonexistent groups used by the Hartleys.) All scales were presented in both Arabic and English.

*Results and discussion.* Correlation between mean social distance of nationalities and mean social distance of religious groups was .39 for the 130 regular students. Although this correlation is greater than could be expected by chance, it is much lower than would be expected if national and religious ethnocentrism were both functions of a generalized ethnocentrism factor. It is particularly low in view of the fact that there are historical relationships between some of the religious groups and some of the national groups. In this part of the world the French have traditionally protected and sponsored the Maronites, the English have defended the Druzes, the Americans have encouraged the Protestants.<sup>14</sup> Moreover, Saudi Arabia is the strong Sunni center, while Iraq is notable for its large Shi'ite population. The low correlation could easily be attributed to factors other than personality.

The correlation between mean social distance of national groups and score on the "authoritarian personality" scale was .01, and the correlation between mean social distance of religious groups and the scale was .14. Neither of these correlations is significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Ethnocentrism of these students is not related to score on the "authoritarian personality" scale, although it has been shown that this scale is useful in the Near East.<sup>15</sup>

The split-half correlation of social distance responses to 20 national groups by the 102 summer students was .03. It was impossible to determine the relationship between response to the 2 nonexistent groups and response to the other 18 groups, because none of the subjects responded to both of the nonexistent groups. Six rated the Pireans (perhaps identifying them as inhabitants of nearby Pireas) and only 1 rated Wallonians. Of the 7 ratings, 4 were at the neutral point of the scale, 1 was on the favorable side, and 2 were unfavorable ratings. All the other responses were "F" — "I know nothing about this group; I cannot express an attitude."

<sup>14</sup> G. Antonius, *The Arab Awakening* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946), p. 169.

<sup>15</sup> Prothro and Melikian, "The California Public Opinion Scale in an Authoritarian Culture."



If response to nonexistent groups reveals the extent to which prejudice is a function of the personality of respondent, then we cannot assume that the ethnocentrism of the Near East is a personality function.

None of the American evidences of a generalized ethnocentric factor of personality are found in our Near Eastern subjects. It therefore appears that the relationship between personality and ethnocentrism which exists in America, and possibly elsewhere, is a function of special features of those cultures. The competitive American culture, which stresses social mobility and conformist assimilation, may explain the relationship. On the other hand, the more tradition-oriented, mosaic type of social structure found in the Near East encourages ethnocentrism but does not link it so closely to antidemocratic personality traits.

*Summary.* Two groups of Near Eastern students were examined to see whether there was evidence for a generalized ethnocentric factor. Although ethnocentrism characterizes the culture of the Near East, there is no evidence that it is a generalized personality factor. Correlations between scores on an authoritarian personality scale and social distance scales were negligible. Split-half correlation of scores on a 20-item social distance scale was approximately zero. Although the subjects were quite ethnocentric, they did not attempt to judge nonexistent ("nonesuch") groups. Cultural factors apparently determine whether ethnocentrism is generalized and a reflection of personality.

Although students in the Near East maintain considerable social distance from national religious groups other than their own, they are not necessarily hostile toward out-groups. It is a rare student in the Near East who is willing to marry outside his own religious group. Ethnocentrism is far more predominant than in America.

## LABOR UNDER REVIEW: 1952

MELVIN J. VINCENT  
*University of Southern California*

Organized labor may long remember the year 1952 for the infliction of what may be termed some more or less serious losses. Among these were (1) the defeat of its supported presidential candidate, Adlai Stevenson; (2) the deaths of two great labor leaders, CIO's Philip Murray and AFL's William Green; (3) several significant Supreme Court adverse decisions, one being the denial to the President of the United States of the power of seizure of an industry; (4) the shearing of the power of making settlements in wage disputes by the Wage Stabilization Board through Congressional action; (5) the passage of the McCarran-Walter Immigration Bill, bitterly opposed by CIO; and (6) the loss of about fifty-five million man-days of work through strikes with the wages accompanying such work. Offsetting these losses were several gains: (1) wages soaring to an all-time high, averaging \$70.80 for a 41½ work-week; (2) the spread of retirement insurance plans, now embracing 90 per cent of the labor force (in 1937, only 15 per cent were so covered), coupled with some fourteen thousand pension plans affecting over ten million workers; (3) the extension and liberation of social security benefits; (4) record employment with 62,260,000 persons in industry, agriculture, and office, and a low in unemployment of 1,400,000; and (5) the appointment of AFL's Secretary-Treasurer, Martin P. Durkin, as Secretary of Labor by President-elect Eisenhower.

Business fared well, with the great production units making good profits despite strikes and high taxes. The aggregate profits of 386 companies have been reported as being 7.4 per cent higher for the third quarter of the year than during the same period in 1951. After the election of Dwight Eisenhower as President on the Republican ticket, NAM's retiring President William J. Grede declared that the election had ended "two decades of economic nonsense." Others at the December meeting of NAM thought that the end of Democratic party rule would see the dawn of the day of the demise of Big Government and the defying of Big Labor. NAM hoped that the new government leadership would be more specifically attentive to the interests of industry.

At the end of the year, with both organized labor and organized management aware of the prospects for immediate social changes attendant upon the end of twenty years of New Deal and Fair Deal arrangements and the beginning of a new presidential administration, attitudes

of "wait and see" were in the making. The accommodation process might be put to new tests. In 1952 the process had been affected by great stress and strain, what with more man-days of idleness through strikes than in any other year since 1946. Nonetheless, the mellowing of the worst of the conflict situations had proceeded. All the big strikes had been brought to an end and production resumed at a rapid rate. The railroads, under government control for three years, had been handed back to their original owners, with many of their workers gaining long-sought-for wage boosts and improved conditions of work. John L. Lewis had even gone quietly on a vacation trip to South America after being assured that his miners really would get the \$1.90-a-day wage boost promised by President Truman. Flashed across the screen on the eve of the new year were the words *more jobs, more money, higher prices, higher taxes, bigger debts!* Biggest question mark facing the new year for labor and management came at the end of the query: What about the revision of the Taft-Hartley Act?

Significant events for 1952, selected from information gathered from press dispatches, newsweeklies, telecommunication materials, CIO and AFL research documents and pamphlets, and the Department of Labor's *Monthly Labor Review*, may be indicative of trends in the field of labor relations and may have some meaning for the future of the United States economy.

## JANUARY

CIO Steelworkers' strike for January 1 postponed by special convention vote for 45 days after January 7 at President Truman's request so as to give Wage Stabilization Board a chance to review the matter.

U.S. Supreme Court sustains price ceilings established by Office of Price Stabilization in case of Safeway Stores, Inc., vs. DiSalle; sustains a lower court's award of damages against a union indulging in unfair labor practices.

A WSB regional board at Detroit finds a construction company guilty of paying over-the-ceiling wages.

AFL and CIO in New York form a joint committee to find ways and means for ending jurisdictional disputes between their affiliates.

Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen reject a Presidential Emergency Board's recommendation providing for increases in hourly wages, 23½¢ for road service employees and 38¢ for yardmen.

## FEBRUARY

John L. Lewis and Senator Taft wrangle over the meaning and implications of the Taft-Hartley Act.

WSB announces policy on employee pension plans: New plans may be launched if they plan for retirement at 65, with benefits to be paid over lifetime, but employer's contribution cannot be converted by worker into cash if worker leaves before retirement age is reached.

CIO's Murray sets March 23 as deadline for steel strike; oil workers' strike averted by referring case to WSB.

Senate confirms nomination of Ellis Arnall, former Georgia Governor, as Director of Price Stabilization to succeed Michael V. DiSalle, resigned.

Emergency Board in case of nonoperating railroad workers recommends the union shop because (1) Congress already has sanctioned it, (2) it already covers four million other workers, and (3) unions are on firm ground in stating that nonunionites enjoying union gains are "free-riders." One-time New Dealer Donald Richberg, lawyer for Southeastern Railroads, holds findings to be intolerable and a menace to "free institutions."

### MARCH

Federal Court injunction halts a two-day strike on some New York Central and affiliated lines by 5,000 railroad engineers.

President Truman astonishes many by stating at the annual Jackson Day dinner that he will not run again for President.

WSB announces its decision in the steel strike case. Its awards: (1) boost of  $17\frac{1}{2}\phi$  an hour,  $12\frac{1}{2}\phi$  retroactive to January 1, 1952,  $2\frac{1}{2}\phi$  on July 1, and  $2\frac{1}{2}\phi$  on January 1, 1953; (2) higher premium pay for 2nd and 3rd shift workers; (3) elimination of differentials between North and South; (4) holiday pay for all and vacation pay for some. It advises steelworkers and operators to negotiate for union shop in new contract and to consider the annual wage guarantee. Union jubilant but companies indignant and refuse to consider proposals unless given rise in steel prices.

Truman calls Mobilization Director C. E. Wilson to Key West to talk over steel matter. On March 30 Wilson resigns when he finds Truman siding with Arnall against rise in steel prices. Murray denounces Wilson as U.S. Steel requests all labor-management conferences postponed indefinitely. Truman names John R. Steelman as temporary Director of Mobilization to succeed Wilson. House Rules Committee votes to direct Labor Committee to investigate WSB. Murray calls for the strike on April 8.

## APRIL

Steelworkers strike, and on April 9 Truman seizes steel plants. National furor created, and steel operators call seizure unwarranted and illegal. Senate Judiciary Committee prepares to investigate the legality of the presidential action. Other big governmental interferences occurred in 1941, 1943, 1944, 1945, 1946, and 1950. Steel companies petition Washington District Court's Judge David A. Pine for court order to force President to hand back the steel companies to the owners and to forbid wage increases while mills are under governmental jurisdiction.

AFL Commercial Telegraphers' Union on strike and CIO Communication Workers also on strike, affecting over 100,000 workers in all. Ninety thousand oil workers go on strike after WSB fails to make recommendations for settlement. Disruption of WSB begins when industry members fail to appear for panel meetings.

Dwight Eisenhower, Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in Europe, decides to bow to popular demand and run on the Republican ticket for President. Truman accedes to his request to relieve him of his command.

## MAY

Judge David A. Pine rules that Truman was without executive power to seize the steel mills, since no specific law gave him such a right. Truman prepares to return the mills, and Murray orders strike to begin. Federal government appeals to U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals for a stay of injunction, which is granted with the proviso that the Government appeal to the Supreme Court within two days. Truman asks Murray to halt the strike until collective bargaining talks can begin at White House and the Supreme Court rules on the case. Supreme Court agrees to consider the case and orders a wage freeze. House Education and Labor Committee examines the controversy to find out if WSB had violated or failed to respect national labor policy and if its policies were not inconsistent with stabilization.

Steelworkers' Union in convention at Philadelphia decides not to continue to work in 1952 for 1950 wages.

Railroads returned to owners by Federal government after nearly three years of seizure, and road workers get 22½¢-an-hour increase, yard employees 37¢-an-hour increase with pay scales adjustable to cost of living, and way paved for 40-hour week.

Western Union and AFL end 53-day walkout with 10¢-an-hour wage boost coupled with 40-hour week; oil workers accept a WSB pattern wage increase of 15¢ an hour and end strike.



Supreme Court decides that an employer's insistence upon a "management functions" clause in a contract is not in itself an unfair labor practice as held by an NLRB decision.

## JUNE

U.S. Supreme Court by 6-3 decision invalidates the Truman seizure of the steel companies. Murray immediately calls out workers. Government relinquishes the mills and Truman asks Congress for specific seizure power. Congress' reply to Truman: "Use the Taft-Hartley law." Truman refuses to invoke Taft-Hartley, since he states that the strike has already been postponed 150 days at his request. J. L. Lewis offers Murray ten million to fight the "rapacious and predatory interests." Industry and steelworkers agree to produce enough steel for military purposes. By end of the month, steel losses amount to six million tons of steel, 250 million dollars in wages, and one billion dollars' worth of steel products.

New Defense Production Act Amendments of 1952 passed; Act deprives WSB of power of settling wage disputes. Congress also requests the President to invoke the Taft-Hartley Act to end the steel strike.

United Auto Workers and Kaiser-Frazer announce extension of company-financed health insurance plan to cover retired employees and dependents—first such provision in automotive industry.

U.S. Supreme Court tells Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen that the Railway Labor Act bans unions from destroying jobs of colored workers.

## JULY

Steel strike still on, with 250,000 other workers idle. CIO settles with thirty small steel companies. Truman claims that the big steel companies are in a conspiracy against public interest, while the Steelworkers' Union files charges against companies with NLRB; big issue is the union shop. Steel companies invite unions to resume negotiations. John R. Steelman confers with a committee of three representatives of steelmen, headed by Roger Blough of U.S. Steel. Companies are offered a price increase of \$5.20 a ton. Strike reported to be most damaging in U.S. history. Finally after 55 days, strike ends on July 26. Terms of settlement: 16¢-an-hour increase retroactive to March 1 granted workers, along with other benefits up to 5.4¢ an hour and a modified union shop (one in which employees need not join if they specifically state within 30 days of hiring that they do not wish to). On July 30 Office of Price Stabilization authorizes price increase of \$5.64 a ton.

Truman signs Federal Coal Mine Safety Act, authorizing Federal mine inspectors to close unsafe mines; also signs Social Security Act Amendments of 1952, providing increases in old age and survivor's insurance; placing a \$75-a-month limit on earnings as a condition of eligibility for benefits, plus larger Federal contributions to the several states' public assistance contracts. President also signs Fair Trade Price Control Law, allowing 45 states to permit fair trade fixing of prices. (Three states—Vermont, Missouri, and Texas—have no such laws.)

#### AUGUST

WSB made over. Truman names 14 members and looks about for 4 more; Archibald Cox, cochairman of old WSB's Construction Stabilization Committee, is new chairman. New Board faces 12,000 applications for wage boosts, but can now only approve or disapprove of bargaining already made.

Ellis Arnall resigns as Director of Office of Price Stabilization and Tighe E. Woods appointed. New cost-of-living index at an all-time high, 190.8 (1935-39=100.0). Living costs rise 10 per cent from those of 1948.

John L. Lewis informs coal operators that contracts for 475,000 miners will terminate September 30 as he stops coal production from August 23 to September 1 as a memorial for miners killed in accidents.

Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co. sales for first six months of 1952 reported as \$568,833,000, an all-time high; yet net profits declined 25 per cent from last year's same period.

#### SEPTEMBER

Lewis in a Labor Day message declares all labor organizations must unite or perish.

Resigned Director of Defense Mobilization C. E. Wilson states he quit because CIO's Murray wanted everything his own way and rode roughshod over Truman.

AFL's seventy-first annual convention held in New York and listens to both presidential candidates, Eisenhower and Stevenson; for second time in its history AFL votes to endorse a presidential candidate, the candidate preferred—Stevenson. CIO had previously endorsed same candidate.

Acting Director of Defense Mobilization Steelman replaced by Henry H. Fowler, NPA and DP administrator. Cyrus S. Ching resigns as Director of Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service; David L. Cole named his successor.

John L. Lewis gets new contract for 170,000 Northern soft coal miners, averting a strike just seven hours ahead of time. Got a \$1.90-a-day boost, making daily wage \$16.35; also a 10¢-a-ton royalty boost.

Third Circuit Court of Appeals in Philadelphia rules that a union official who uses violence to compel a nonunionized company to hire a union man is guilty of extortion under the Hobbs Anti-Racketeering Act of 1946.

## OCTOBER

U.S. Supreme Court in a series of decisions referring to Taft-Hartley Act holds: (1) a union violates Act if it threatens a strike to maintain closed shops; (2) a union's threat to expel employees from membership in order to carry out its collective bargaining contract policies does not constitute coercion; (3) employer's request for and acceptance of information on names of persons attending a union meeting and its nature of business does not interfere with union activities unless proof is forthcoming that it was a pattern of antiunion conduct; (4) employees may not be discharged under a union security clause for failure to pay an increase in dues, since such action constitutes a fine rather than periodic dues; (5) a Michigan act forbidding strikes by public utilities employees under penalty of dismissal is constitutional.

NLRB holds both a union and an employer violated LMRA by requiring union membership for participation in benefits of welfare fund established by union contract requiring employer to contribute a percentage of earnings of all employees to union for sole support of union fund.

OPS fines a steel corporation for violating ceiling prices.

WSB by a vote of 8 to 4 decides Lewis' miners cannot have more than \$1.50-a-day increase despite the \$1.90 called for by the Lewis contract. Miners stunned and 300,000 fail to report for work. Lewis calls the ruling contemptible and says WSB is trying to steal 40¢ a day from miners. Truman summons Lewis and President Harry Moses of Bituminous Coal Operators to a twenty-four-minute conference.

Business Agent of CIO Packinghouse Workers convicted by a U.S. Court of falsely swearing he was not a member of or affiliated with Communist party in an NLRB affidavit in 1949. First conviction for making false statement regarding non-Communist affidavit. NLRB revokes status of local union thereupon and states that union may not utilize the NLRB in elections nor unfair labor practices.

## NOVEMBER

Eisenhower elected as President and organized labor falls flat on its official face.

Eighty-seven-day strike in eight plants of International Harvester ends for 25,000, who get a 7¢-an-hour raise and other benefits.

Tighe E. Woods resigns as Director of OPS, with J. H. Freehall appointed as Acting Director.

CIO's President Philip Murray, 66, dies in San Francisco while on his way to CIO fourteenth annual convention in Los Angeles. Convention immediately postponed to December 1 and transferred to Atlantic City.

Just twelve days later, November 21, AFL's William Green, 82, dies. Green was one of three presidents of AFL (1924-52) and saw AFL grow from a two-million to an eight-million membership. George Meany, Secretary-Treasurer of AFL, elected to succeed.

President-elect Eisenhower appoints Charles Erwin Wilson as Secretary of Defense, John Foster Dulles as Secretary of State, Herbert Brownell as Attorney-General, Douglas McKay as Secretary of Interior, George M. Humphrey as Secretary of Treasury, and Ezra Taft Benson as Secretary of Agriculture.

Department of Labor announces number of employed at 62,260,000 in industry, farms and offices, with workers averaging an all-time high of \$70.80 per 41½-hour work-week.

Senator Taft says he is willing to amend Taft-Hartley Act so as to extend non-Communist affidavit to employers, close loopholes of secondary boycott, and prevent law from being used as strike-breaking implement.

## DECEMBER

Fourteenth annual convention of CIO, held in Atlantic City, elects Walter Reuther of UAW as its president to succeed the late Philip Murray.

Truman overrules WSB on miners' pay and gives them the \$1.90 raise. Industry members of WSB resign, with Chairman Cox saying WSB has become a mockery. Truman fails to find men willing to take place of resigners and tells Economic Stabilizer Roger Putnam to carry on with the three public members as a special committee.

Eisenhower appoints Democrat Martin P. Durkin, President of AFL's Plumbers and Pipefitters' Union as his new Secretary of Labor, which appointment is labeled as "incredible" by Senator Taft.

Congressional Joint Committee on the Economic Report in its summary declares: (1) 90 per cent of U.S. labor force now covered by retirement insurance (in 1937, only 15 per cent covered), (2) private pension plans covering ten million workers have increased from 720 in

1930 to 14,000 in 1951, (3) of the thirteen million persons over 65 in the U.S. only four million get income from work. Recommends (1) more jobs for aged who desire work, (2) more benefits for aged widows and prematurely retired, (3) pensions adjusted to cost of living.

Roger L. Putnam resigns as Administrator of Economic Stabilization Agency and Michael V. DiSalle appointed in his stead. NAM and U.S. Chamber of Commerce refuse to nominate industry members for Truman's WSB.

Eisenhower appoints Oveta Culp Hobby as Federal Security Administrator.

At the end of 1952 organized labor, despite the outcome of the November elections, had probably nothing more to fear than any other organized group of citizens so far as work, wages, and taxes entered into the situation. Collective bargaining contracts, fortified with escalator clauses, lent a highly protective coloring to the wage picture. Through aggressive leadership, the great industrial unions had demonstrated the efficiency of their tactics for the economic welfare of their workers. Those employed in the mining, construction, automotive, aircraft, and steel industries were found standing in the top brackets of wage levels. The unorganized workers and professional salaried workers were as usual in an unfavorable position, not only with respect to wages and earnings but also with respect to enormous income taxes, the latter of which threaten them with an uncomfortable prospect of dependency in old age.

If organized labor leaders were not jubilant over the election of President Eisenhower, neither were they merry over what seemed to be the defection of their followers politically. Most critics on the aftermath of the election argued that the rank and file did not relish being told how to vote. It must here be remembered that not since 1924 had AFL endorsed a presidential candidate. Certainly, President Truman had taken the part of the steelworkers in their strike dispute, telling the nation on the eve of the April seizure of the steel mills that the Wage Stabilization Board's recommendations were "fair and reasonable" and that steel profits were already running around  $2\frac{1}{2}$  billion a year or at a profit of \$19.50 per ton. Evidently, the workers, if they did vote against him, held that they had nothing to fear at the hands of the well-liked Eisenhower. It may well be too that they considered themselves soundly enough organized on an economic basis, and that was the principle upon which their organizations had been founded. No administration could dissolve such powerful cohesions.



From the review of the events, labor and business had only to fear an economic recession brought on by various factors, such as the possibility of the end of the Korean affair, Russian peace moves, lowering of tariff walls permitting wider foreign economic competition, and overproduction or business retrenchment policies. Promised lower taxes, promised revival of free enterprise, promised lessened Federal governmental interference with industry were provisions in the hope chest of business. And no repeal of Taft-Hartley was looming! The United States of America was still in business as a world champion of democracy with enough atomic force behind it to hold its own against anyone. For the common man this was security enough.

# INSTITUTION MEMBERSHIP IN RELATION TO CLASS LEVELS

ODELL UZZELL

*The Ohio State University*

This report deals with an analysis of the membership of a Young Men's Christian Association in a Southern city in relation to class levels. The hypothesis of this study was that the membership of such a social institution functions as a middle-class privilege and that this condition would be manifested by a disproportionate number of above-average members in comparison with the total community.

Two sets of data were used to formulate criteria of "class" position. These were the occupations of "Y" members and their home rental valuations, as compared with those of the total community.

Occupation has been used extensively in theory and in research as a criterion of socioeconomic background. Social scientists agree considerably that if only one item relating to socioeconomic status could be recorded, occupation would probably be selected as the most significant.<sup>1</sup> Mulligan,<sup>2</sup> Anderson,<sup>3</sup> Hollingshead,<sup>4</sup> West,<sup>5</sup> Warner and associates,<sup>6</sup> and others have made empirical studies which have reasonably well established that occupation is a reliable index of differential prestige.

The North-Hatt Occupational Prestige Rating Scale was used in ranking occupations.<sup>7</sup>

Likewise, many studies have revealed that there is a correlation between the amount of rent paid and the prestige rating of the renter in the community. Warner found it was generally the lower occupational classes who paid less rent and lived in areas of the city which had low prestige rating, while the percentage of upper-class people living in areas of high prestige rating was equally significant.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Talcott Parsons, "An Analytical Approach to the Theory of Social Stratification," *American Journal of Sociology*, 45: 841-62, 1939-40.

<sup>2</sup> Raymond A. Mulligan, "Socio-Economic Background and College Enrollment," *American Sociological Review*, 16: 189-90, 1951.

<sup>3</sup> W. A. Anderson, "The Occupational Attitudes and Choices of a Group of College Men," *Social Forces*, 6:280, 1927-28.

<sup>4</sup> A. B. Hollingshead, "Behavior Systems as a Field for Research," *American Sociological Review*, 4:316-22, 1939.

<sup>5</sup> James West, *Plainville, USA*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

<sup>6</sup> W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941).

<sup>7</sup> National Opinion Research Center, *Final Report of a Special Opinion Survey among Americans Fourteen and Over*, Denver, Colorado, 1947. Also included as part of an unpublished study by Cecil C. North and Paul K. Hatt.

<sup>8</sup> Warner and Lunt, *op. cit.*, p. 225.

Occupations of "Y" members were obtained from membership cards on file in the secretary's office. In cases where the occupations were not listed, data were obtained directly from the members by telephone calls or interviews, and in a few cases from persons who knew them. Occupations of 1,201 members were secured.

There were 46 occupations appearing in the tabulation which did not appear on the North-Hatt Scale. These were arranged on cards, and a panel of three judges, all members of the Sociology Department in The Ohio State University, rated each occupation to an equivalent occupation on the North-Hatt Scale. Where there were no equivalents, each was rated to its nearest equivalent. The average obtained from the three ratings was assigned as the occupation's rank order. These occupations along with the others were in turn translated into relative positions on the North-Hatt Scale, using their norms for the Southern region.

Rental valuation data, both for renters and some home owners, were obtained from the housing expediter and realtors. These data were secured by blocks. Rental valuation of all home owners was computed by the rental of the neighborhood by blocks. This might not have been the most adequate technique, but the assumption seems reasonable that rental is an index of class prestige primarily in terms of immediate neighborhood, rather than specific site location.

Addresses of "Y" members were compared with those appearing in data from the housing expediter and the realtors. These were translated according to block. If a member's address did not appear in the rental data, it was assigned to the applicable block by address. These comparable addresses were plotted on a spot map of X by rental zone. The rental range zones were \$5-\$14, \$15-\$24, \$25-\$34, and above \$35.

A sample was taken in order to secure data on the total community relative to occupations and home rental valuations. The school population was considered fairly representative of the total community. There were approximately 3,120 pupils enrolled in the Negro schools of X for the school year 1950-51. A 15 per cent random sample was taken, using the school population.

Occupations from the sample were tabulated just as those of the "Y" members and were given assignments on the North-Hatt Scale for relative positions according to rank. Addresses from the sample were treated in the same way as those of the "Y" members, being tabulated by block and rental zone.

After the occupations of both populations, "Y" and community, were ranked for relative positions on the North-Hatt Scale, they were divided

into quartiles commensurate to those of the "Y" members. The per cent of members from both populations, appearing in each quartile, was then computed.

Occupations of the two populations were also classified according to the sevenfold classification used by the United States Bureau of Census.<sup>9</sup> The per cent of members for both groups for each classification was calculated. With the rental range zones, the per cent of both populations for each zone was computed.

Differences were subjected to the chi-square test in order to test their statistical significance. The occupation with the highest rating for the "Y" members was that of physician, which ranked number 2 on the North-Hatt Scale; the occupations with the lowest rating were those of railroad section hand and janitor, ranked 83 and 84 respectively on the prestige scale. In the community population, the highest-ranking occupation was that of college teacher, ranked number 6 on the North-Hatt Scale; the lowest-ranking occupation was that of shoe shiner, ranked number 89.

Table 1 shows the occupations of "Y" members and those of the community by quartiles. Those occupations in the upper quartiles have the higher prestige ratings. Occupations in the first quartile have rankings of 2 through 42 on the North-Hatt Scale. It is significant that 25.5 per cent, or one fourth, of the "Y" members were in occupations found in the first quartile. The community population had 9 per cent, or approximately one tenth, in the first quartile.

Both populations had their heaviest concentration in the fourth quartile. These occupations ranked 66 through 89 on the North-Hatt Scale. However, it is important to observe that 62 per cent of the community population had occupations in this quartile, whereas the "Y" population had 35 per cent. The fourth quartile consists, it is to be noted, of occupations with the lowest prestige rankings.

A general observation of Table 1 reveals that better than three fifths of the community population was in the fourth quartile, while almost half of the "Y" population was distributed in the first two quartiles.

According to the chi-square test, the difference between the prestige rankings of the occupations of the "Y" population and those of the community population is statistically significant (124.397) at the .001 level of confidence.

<sup>9</sup> *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (Revised Edition), Washington, D.C., War Manpower Commission, Division of Occupational Analysis, October 1944.

TABLE 1  
PER CENT OF YMCA SAMPLE\* AND  
COMMUNITY SAMPLE† BY QUARTILE‡

| Quartile | YMCA Sample |          | Community Sample |          |
|----------|-------------|----------|------------------|----------|
|          | Number      | Per Cent | Number           | Per Cent |
| 1        | 306         | 25.5     | 40               | 9.0      |
| 2        | 234         | 19.5     | 43               | 9.0      |
| 3        | 239         | 20.0     | 95               | 20.0     |
| 4        | 422         | 35.0     | 289              | 62.0     |
| Totals   | 1,201       | 100.0    | 467              | 100.0    |

\* Includes all the YMCA members on file, September 1950.

† A 15 per cent random sample of the Negro population.

‡ Quartiles are of occupations' prestige rating according to the North-Hatt Scale of Occupational Prestige.

In the next place the number and per cent of both population aggregates may be considered according to the sevenfold census classification of occupations. It should probably be emphasized here that the basis for the census classification is type rather than any prescribed or assumed prestige order. The "Y" constituent had a higher per cent, 20, listed in the professional and managerial occupations than the community population, which had 12.1 per cent. More community members were found in the service occupations than were "Y" members. Almost half, 42 per cent, of the community members were in service occupations, whereas the percentage of "Y" members was 30, or only three tenths. The data show that the occupations of the "Y" population tend to be concentrated in the professional, managerial, clerical, and sales categories to a greater degree than for the population as a whole. According to the chi-square test, the difference between the categorical classifications of the "Y" population and the community population is statistically significant at the .001 level of confidence.

Over one half, or 51.2 per cent, of the community population lived in neighborhoods where the rental range valuation was \$5-\$14. Its counterpart in the "Y" contingency had 40.2 per cent. Neighborhoods with a rental range valuation of \$15-\$24 claimed 27.8 per cent of the "Y" members and 33.3 per cent of the community members. Significantly, the two lower rental ranges contained the largest per cent of the community population. In these two zones together, 84.5 per cent, or over four

fifths, of the community population was found. In those neighborhoods where the rental ranges were \$25-\$34, 18.7 per cent of the "Y" members were found and 10.7 per cent of the community members were found. Only 5.1 per cent of the community population lived in neighborhoods where the rental valuation was \$35 and above, while the "Y" population was represented with 13.3 per cent.

The difference between the rental paid by the "Y" population and the community population is statistically significant at the .001 level of confidence.

The difference in the distribution of the two populations was not due, it will be recalled, to a wide margin of chance or probability. The "Y" population had a greater concentration in those occupations which had high prestige rankings and fewer in those occupations with low prestige rankings. The community population had fewer in those occupations with prestige rankings and a majority, or three fifths, in those occupations with low prestige rankings.

Differences were revealed according to the Census Classification of Occupations. But it is difficult precisely to weigh what the differences mean, because of the criteria used in the classification. There is no prescribed order for classification. Since, however, appreciably greater percentages of "Y" members' occupations appeared in such high-ranking categories as professional, managerial, clerical, and sales, the results from the quartile distribution test tend to be further validated.

A higher per cent of the community population lived in neighborhoods with low rental valuations, and fewer in neighborhoods with high rental valuations. The reverse was true for the "Y" population. These differences are also statistically significant at the .001 level of confidence. Subsequently, the frequency table tends to show that the "Y" population pays a higher rental than does the community population.

What conclusions can be drawn from these findings? Since the differences between the two populations were affected little by chance, the conclusion seems warranted that the preponderance of "Y" members in the significant categories gives validity and substantiation to the hypothesis that there is a larger number of upper- and middle-class "Y" members in comparison with the total population of the given community. The "Y" is not reaching the more underprivileged classes in the community studied in proportion to their numbers. At this point it is necessary to re-emphasize that more empirical studies are needed in this area before any universal conclusions can be drawn.



## THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK An Undergraduate Introductory Course

HERBERT STROUP  
*Brooklyn College*

What Plutarch said of clay is true of the teaching of social work. Said he: "Nobody wets clay with water and leaves it, assuming that by chance and immediately there will be bricks."<sup>1</sup> Likewise, no teacher can disregard his objectives and expect commendable results. The analysis of the objectives of teaching social work to undergraduates should enable teachers to achieve their aims more consciously and proficiently. What then are the objectives of the teaching of social work to undergraduates?

On about the lowest plane, I suppose, there are those teachers of social work whose goals primarily center in their own satisfactions. To these popularity with students and others, for example, is of basic importance. They are like the ancient leader Proxenus, who joined Cyrus in his Persian expedition. Of him Xenophon remarked: "It was more obvious that he was afraid of being unpopular with his troops than that his troops were afraid of disobeying his orders."<sup>2</sup> Vanity, no matter how carefully camouflaged in the rhetoric of scholarship, can be detected. As with Henrik Ibsen, who sat in a Munich restaurant making faces in a hand mirror which he covertly had placed in the hat he was holding upsidedown between his knees, there comes to every vain person a Lincoln Steffens who passes behind him and peers over his shoulder to expose him for all men and time.<sup>3</sup>

Another prime objective of some teachers of social work to undergraduates is instruction in the facts, all the facts and nothing but the facts of social work. Such a teacher is apt to be like the parson in the prologue to *The Canterbury Tales*. "Rich he was of holy thought and work. He was a learned man, a clerk." This teacher notes that his subject, like the parson's parish, is "wide, with houses far asunder." Of its factual content he expects, like the parson, to visit it all "upon his

<sup>1</sup> Plutarch's *Moralia*, trans. by Frank Cole Babbitt (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1928), Vol. 2, p. 87.

<sup>2</sup> Xenophon, *The Persian Expedition*, trans. by Rex Warner (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1949), pp. 91-92.

<sup>3</sup> *The Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens*, abridged (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1937), p. 148. Confucius said of Hwang, a disciple, that he "is of no assistance to me; there is nothing that I say in which he does not delight."

feet, and in his hands a staff."<sup>4</sup> The student is expected to be, like Caesar's barber, "a busy, listening fellow." But such an objective, worthy in part, may not accomplish its desired effect. The student may undergo simply an exercise in memorizing and forgetting. Facts, moreover, have a persistent way of going out of date. "Great blunders are often made," said Victor Hugo in *Les Misérables*, "like large ropes, of a multitude of fibers."<sup>5</sup>

A third principal goal of the teaching of social work to undergraduates is more complex. It cannot be stated in simple terms, but must be described and analyzed in some detail. That is the present purpose.

For one thing, beginning in the negative vein, this conception does not make a "clerk" of the teacher. He is, in T. S. Eliot's phrase, one who "but speaks the word only."<sup>6</sup> Such a teacher reminds one of the conflict within the early Christian assembly, when the Hellenists murmured against the Hebrews "because their widows were neglected in the daily distribution." The twelve summoned the body of disciples and said: "It is not right that we should give up preaching the word of God to serve tables."<sup>7</sup>

In other words, a teacher of social work to undergraduates should believe that all teaching is based upon ethical and spiritual foundations. He agrees with Aristotle's logic: "Every art, and every science reduced to a teachable form, and in every like manner every action and moral choice, aims, it is thought, at some good."<sup>8</sup> It is the inspiring of some "good" that ideally should mold the aims of teaching.

The inspiring of some good may assume dramatic proportions ultimately in the experience of the student, as in the case of the young Vassar College student who was so inspired by a Professor Dickinson's course that she later contributed two million dollars for an endowment in

<sup>4</sup> Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1928), pp. 161-62.

<sup>5</sup> Victor Hugo, *Les Misérables*, centenary ed. (Boston: Dana Estes, n.d.), Vol. 2, p. 241.

<sup>6</sup> T. S. Eliot, *Ash Wednesday* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1930), p. 21.

<sup>7</sup> Acts 6: 1-7; *The Revised Standard Version of the New Testament*. Father Moore, a Roman Catholic priest and social worker, notes the same dilemma in more recent times. Of one of his more mechanical public housing assignments he said: "I had not spent six years in the seminary and become a priest to serve as a builder and rent collector." Edward Roberts Moore, *Roman Collar* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 210.

<sup>8</sup> Aristotle, *Ethics*, Everyman's ed. (New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1937), p. 1. Sometimes one feels impelled to apologize about believing in a god. I am reminded of a comment of Ralph Barton Perry, "The art of refined discourse now requires a dyslogistic vocabulary with which to make veiled allusions to virtue, as euphemisms were once required to avoid indelicate allusions to vice," *Puritanism and Democracy* (New York: The Vanguard Press, Inc., 1944), p. 54.

mental hygiene in his memory.<sup>9</sup> On the other hand, such teaching may be the basis on which small, seemingly inconsequential acts of goodness are performed by plain people on a day-by-day practice throughout their lifetimes, thus maintaining and strengthening the moral and purposive fabric of social living. Such a teaching aim is not easy to achieve by any means, but, as Robert Browning said in *The Inn Album*, "better to have failed in the high aim . . . than vulgarly in the low aim succeed."<sup>10</sup>

The nature of the good to be sought in teaching social work to undergraduates needs further definition. Its ultimate character probably cannot be encompassed within any particular definition or description. There have been efforts, however, at clarifying its nature which bear mention. A review of the papers previously read to the National Association of Schools of Social Administration shows that the subject has been treated on a number of occasions. In February 1949 the American Association of Schools of Social Work published a document which provides a rather specific analysis of the nature of teaching objectives in connection with an undergraduate, introductory social work course.<sup>11</sup> More recently, the study made by Ernest V. Hollis and Alice Taylor for the National Council on Social Work Education has given additional light on the thorny problem of teaching objectives.<sup>12</sup> From these and other sources a body of knowledge has become available which is helpful in analyzing the nature of teaching objectives.

According to the aforementioned document of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, in the formulation of which the writer shared, an undergraduate introductory course in social work should have the following objectives:

1. *The nature of human needs.* The course should provide the student with a summary view of the findings of the biological and social sciences regarding the formation and expression of human needs.

<sup>9</sup> Henry Noble MacCracken, "Raising the Wind," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, 37:541, December 1951.

<sup>10</sup> Horace E. Scudder, ed., *The Complete Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1895), p. 773.

<sup>11</sup> American Association of Schools of Social Work, *The Objective, Content, and Methods of an Undergraduate Introductory Social Work Course*, New York, February 1949.

<sup>12</sup> Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States: The Report of a Study Made for the National Council on Social Work Education* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951). It is difficult to agree with Gordon Hamilton, who says that the Report "seems to suggest that two of the four years of undergraduate study for prospective social workers have a technical orientation." The Report does not seem to bear this contention out. See "Some Implications of Social Work Education in the United States," *Social Casework*, 33:59, February 1952. Jeanette Regensburg has aptly summarized the Report within the compass of an article. See "Charting Directions in Social Work Education in the United States," *Social Casework*, 33:47-54, February 1952.

2. *The nature of social organization.* The community in which social work operates and of which it is a part should be stressed.

3. *The nature of the human relations in social work.* Students should be aided toward an understanding of the ways in which professional social workers and social work programs are related to those persons and groups who wish to avail themselves of them.

4. *The relationship of social work concepts to those of the biological and social sciences.* The course also should relate the concepts of social work to general knowledge.

5. *The attainment of historical perspective.* Undergraduate students should be helped to understand the long development which social work has had.

6. *The development of a personal and social philosophy of social work.* Social workers should be more than technicians. They should have a well-founded theoretical view of what they are attempting to do and why. Thus, the helping of students to secure a philosophy of individual human welfare as the purpose of social policy is important in this course.

7. *Description of the basic components of social work practice.* Obviously, the beginning course should assure each student that he will have a fundamental understanding of the nature of social work.

These "basic seven" objectives comprise, I believe, a suitable framework for a discussion of the subject, although one might prefer a different arrangement of them or different descriptions of their meaning. These aims hold true for those students who are actively anticipating entering a school of social work upon graduation from college, for those who look forward to taking beginning positions in the field which do not now require a graduate education, and for those who have no direct professional interest in social work, but who may in time be found in other occupations and as lay leaders in social welfare in their communities. These goals hold true for the first undergraduate introductory course in social work, no matter what its title may be, although probably the two most commonly found titles are Introduction to Social Welfare and The Field of Social Work. These objectives hold true for the course, whether it is given in a department of sociology, by a graduate school of social work, or by an interdepartmental committee.

## MARITAL ADJUSTMENT IN A SOUTHERN URBAN MINORITY POPULATION

CHARLES E. KING  
*North Carolina College, Durham*

This is a report of a recent study made of 466 Negro couples in Greensboro, North Carolina,<sup>1</sup> who had been married not less than one year nor more than ten. The Burgess and Cottrell Marriage Study Schedule was the instrument used. The purpose of the study was to determine if the Marriage Study Schedule is applicable to racial, social class, and regional groups other than the 526 native-born white, middle-class, professional, white-collar couples studied by Burgess and Cottrell.<sup>2</sup> The criterion of Burgess and Cottrell of a well-adjusted marriage being "one in which the patterns of behavior of the two persons are mutually satisfying" is used as the concept of adjustment.

An attempt was made to have representation of all social classes in this population element included in the sample studied. The well-known system of determining social class by Warner and his associates was used on the community in an effort to determine the status-giving characteristics in the group. The results of analysis of marital data by social class groups are omitted because the numbers were less than 100, except in the case of the middle class, which numbered 304 couples.

The sample of 466 couples is not a representative sample in the statistical sense. The 466 couples were secured by getting cooperative subjects who had been married not more than ten years nor less than one, from all sections and social class levels in the Negro communities of the city.

Each person was asked to check on the schedule the extent of agreement or disagreement on each item in terms of "always agree," "almost always agree," "occasionally disagree," "frequently disagree," "almost always disagree," and "always disagree." The coefficients of contingency between the ratings of marital happiness and the extent of agreements and disagreements for this study were generally higher than the coefficients of contingency of the Burgess and Cottrell study.

Variation in the correlations between happiness ratings and the extent of agreement on the various items is not as great as the variations

<sup>1</sup> Charles E. King, "Factors Making for Success or Failure in Marriage among 466 Negro Couples in a Southern City," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1951.

<sup>2</sup> E. W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1929).

between such in the Burgess and Cottrell study. In the Burgess and Cottrell study it was found that disagreement over the items of handling finances, recreation, demonstration of affection, intimate relations, friends, ways of dealing with in-laws, and philosophy of life had a rather high correlation with domestic unhappiness.<sup>3</sup> The study of Negro couples seems to give evidence that all of the fourteen items are greatly important to domestic harmony. These data seem to be suggestive that any considerable disagreement over any of these items regardless of social class position of the couple may be a symptom of marital maladjustment of the two involved in the union. The suggestion which the data on agreements and disagreements imply gives somewhat more substantiation of the hypothesis suggested by Burgess and Cottrell that "adjustment in marriage is an intimate and affectionate companionship."

It may be significant to state that, regarding the manner of settling disagreements, those couples who indicated that disagreements were settled by a mutual give-and-take process rated their marriages happier than those couples who settled their disagreements by either the husband or wife giving in. This may further indicate that adjustment in modern marriage is better where the relationship is equalitarian than where it is dominated by either the husband or wife.

*Sharing of interests and activities.* The schedules used in the Burgess and Cottrell study as well as this study asked two questions to determine the extent that the couples shared interests and activities. The specific questions asked were:

Do you and your husband engage in outside interests together?  
(check): all of them.....; most of them.....; some of them.....; few of them.....; none of them.....

In leisure time do you prefer to be "on the go"? (check): all the time.....; most of the time..... Or do you prefer to stay at home?  
(check): all the time.....; most of the time.....

The responses by the 466 couples of this study are associated with marital happiness, and the coefficients of contingency are higher than those of the 526 couples of the Burgess and Cottrell study. The correlations of the responses of the 466 couples in this study are very close to the correlations of the responses of the 526 Burgess and Cottrell couples. The sharing of common interests for all of the groups tends to show a higher association with marital happiness than whether leisure time is spent at home or away from home.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 51.



These coefficients seem to imply that it is evident that affectionate and intimate companionship is essential to marital adjustment.

*Demonstration of affection and confiding.* To secure data to test the relationship between demonstration of affection and intimacy to marital happiness, two questions were asked in both studies:

Do you kiss your husband (wife)? (check): almost every day.....; quite frequently.....; occasionally.....; almost never.....

Do you confide in your husband (wife)? (check): about everything.....; about most things.....; about some things.....; about a few things.....; about nothing.....

This study shows a higher association for demonstration of affection and confiding than does the Burgess and Cottrell study. This study shows for frequency of kissing spouse a coefficient of contingency of .50; Burgess and Cottrell found the coefficient of contingency to be .48 for their group. For confiding in spouse this study shows a coefficient of contingency of .46, while for the same Burgess and Cottrell found a coefficient of contingency of .47.

These results show that there is favorable association between demonstration of affection and mutual confiding and marital adjustment.

*Expressions of dissatisfaction with marriage.* Burgess and Cottrell found a significantly high coefficient between unhappiness in marriage and the frequency of regretting marriage, the desire, if done again, to marry a different person or not marry at all. The correlations between complaints about marriage and about one's spouse and marital happiness, according to Burgess and Cottrell's findings, are not as significant indices to marital maladjustment as the more generalized attitude expressed in regretting marriage.

The questions regarding dissatisfaction with marriage asked by the schedules of both studies were: Do you ever regret your marriage? (check): frequently.....; occasionally.....; rarely.....; never.....

If you had your life to live over, do you think you would: marry the same person.....; marry a different person.....; not marry at all.....?

What things annoy and dissatisfy you most about your marriage?.....

.....  
.....  
What things does your husband (wife) do that you do not like?.....

.....  
.....  
It is interesting to observe that the degree of association with marital dissatisfaction is not as high as that found by Burgess and Cottrell. The

coefficients of contingency in this study for regretting marriage and desiring to marry a different spouse are .58 and .52 respectively, while Burgess and Cottrell found for the same respectively .63 and .58.

The results of this study tend to support the suggestion of Burgess and Cottrell that the generalized attitude expressed toward the marriage is more significant than specific complaints about marriage or spouse. The results show somewhat lower coefficients for specific complaints about marriage or spouse.

*Conclusions.* It thus appears that the concept of marital adjustment used by Burgess and Cottrell is applicable to Negro groups. This concept of adjustment in marriage involves the extent to which agreement and disagreement occur around such important matters as handling family finances, recreation, religion, demonstration of affection, friends, intimate relations, caring for the baby, table manners, matters of conventionality, philosophy of life, ways of dealing with in-laws, wife's working, sharing of household tasks, and politics. It has been shown in this study that these factors were in most instances more highly associated with adjustment in marriage in this study than was the case in the Burgess and Cottrell study.

## STUDENT TRAVELWAYS

EMORY S. BOGARDUS  
*University of Southern California*

There are two kinds of travelways, those of the sightseer and those of the student. The former are simple, requiring no special viewpoint and no equipment except a pair of eyes—even naive ones will do. The student who travels, however, needs more than eyesight. He needs travelways that call for considerable preparation. A total of nine travelways of the inquiring-minded traveler will be described here.

1. The student traveler, no matter what his age, informs himself, as a part of his preparation, concerning the cultural backgrounds of the peoples whom he will visit. Cultural anthropology has reached the stage where it furnishes basic, readable materials regarding any major people and most minor peoples on the earth. It is worth while to read carefully one or more general cultural treatises, such as *Most of the World* by Ralph Linton,<sup>1</sup> which enables the reader to locate the cultural development of any one people in the larger framework of mankind.

It is especially important to study the art, including the music, of any people one plans to visit. In so doing one can better understand the feelings of a people. The feeling-life reveals a people far better than a study of their costumes or formal customs. The aspects of their lives that people disclose through their arts are an open sesame to their inner being.

If there are time and aptitude, the acquisition of a speaking knowledge of the language of a people to be visited is invaluable, for nothing helps the traveler to establish rapport better than to speak the local language with ease and reasonable accuracy. However, it is often not feasible to acquire the use of one or more languages for a short stay in a given country. This lack is not fatal, for English is spoken by many natives in most cities of size throughout the world. For rural areas it is usually necessary to acquire the elements of a local vocabulary. If one makes a friendly approach, he will usually find natives who will go far out of their way to help him see and do what is most important to him and to assist him obtain entree into local situations.

In studying the culture of a people a planned procedure is helpful. Since all peoples have similar basic culture patterns, it is well to get a universal scheme of customs and traditions in mind and to fill in the

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<sup>1</sup> New York: Columbia University Press, 1949.

subdivisions with pertinent factual materials. Clark Wissler has given a universal pattern of culture<sup>2</sup> and its subdivisions that may be modified in a number of ways to suit the student traveler's needs. A proposed chart might include (1) food habits, (2) housing conditions, (3) means of transportation, (4) occupational activities, (5) family life, (6) property system and its effects, (7) political system and regulations, (8) art types and their origin, (9) educational and communication systems, and (10) religious practices and beliefs.

2. The study of the culture patterns of a people as given in the aforementioned ten areas of life will be first of all historical, in order that the traveler may understand why people act as they do and believe as they do. On such bases no cultural group is peculiar, strange, or crazy. But the history of the ten different segments of culture patterns naturally leads into a consideration of a people's current problems and struggles. It involves considerations of a people's unsatisfied longings, desires, and frustrations, as well as their animosities and conflicts. It makes plain some of their current goals, the direction in which they are developing, the progress that they are making.

3. The student traveler views all peoples whom he visits as fellow human beings, as fellow members of the human race. He sees them as his equals if not his superiors in some particulars, or at least as his potential equals. Moreover, he avoids giving them the impression of being their superior; unlike many tourists, he does not laugh at their so-called "strange ways"; and, most important, he avoids staring at them. He takes enough time to try to fit into their situation, or at least he is casual in his behavior among them. He does not necessarily do "when in Rome as the Romans do," but he avoids being conspicuous as far as feasible. Above all, he refrains from being "loud" in talking or laughter.

4. The student traveler keeps in mind that wherever he goes he is a guest. Even if he is debarred from certain local areas for security reasons, he accepts the situation courteously. As a guest he tries to fit in as a friendly mixer, not as a critic.

He keeps in mind at all times that he is a guest from the United States (if that be his home country), and hence is his country's unofficial representative. The way he conducts himself in public or private is a dynamic advertisement of his country, favorable or unfavorable, as the case may be.

Even more, he tries, wherever he goes, to make friends for the United States (or whatever country he hails from). If he sometimes forgets,

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<sup>2</sup> *Man and Culture* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1923, Ch. V).

especially when hotel or travel accommodations are unsatisfactory, when some of the local people may be uncivil or rude, he makes amends.

He seeks wherever he can to correct false impressions of his own country. He is repeatedly surprised by the erroneous ideas that other people have of his country, too often because some of his countrymen have disgraced their country or boasted unduly about it, or thoughtlessly given bad impressions of it. In correcting false notions about his country by deed and word he renders a truly patriotic service.

5. Despite a careful preparation, the traveler will come upon unusual, strange, and unexpected behavior. In fact, such experiences are often the most interesting and the longest remembered. As a rule, under such circumstances one does not blurt out his amazement or chagrin, as the case may be, but waits for the appropriate time in order to ask intelligent questions for information.

6. A portion of the student traveler's notebook is written before he starts. It contains notes (a) about cultural backgrounds of each country to be visited; (b) about current trends and problems; (c) a list of historic places to be visited (and why); (d) the names of persons to be seen, either friends, friends of friends, persons who may be seen and interviewed for information; (e) unique activities to be observed that indicate the serious life of the people, such as a parliament in session, a school or workshop in session, a church service, an opera, concert, or festival.<sup>3</sup>

The other part of the notebook is that written as one travels. It is often important to take brief notes as inconspicuously as possible "on the spot" and then "to write them up" in the evening before retiring, no matter how weary one feels. Only by some system such as this can one keep alive all that he sees that is significant. After traveling for a time the events of several days or weeks blend to a large extent into a sort of indistinguishable and possibly confused whole. The jotting down of names and addresses of persons and of hotels, motels, and special sites may not seem important at the time, but may later prove to be worth any inconvenience entailed. Edward A. Ross set an unusual example in his voluminous notetaking wherever he traveled in China, India, South Africa, South America, Russia, Mexico. He returned from each of these trips with notebooks filled with descriptions of daily life, of incidents, of conversations, of word pictures of people.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> Such a program gives one a far better picture of a country than limiting one's attention to famous places to eat and to night clubs.

<sup>4</sup> As revealed in his *South of Panama, Changing Chinese, Russia in Upheaval, The Social Revolution in Mexico*.

7. It is important to carry letters of introduction to particular persons. They conserve time in meeting key people. They help to establish a working acquaintance with "local persons" in another country who can help one to meet important people and to gain admission to many important places and events otherwise inaccessible.

It is likewise important to write letters ahead to people who can give specific and important data not otherwise obtainable. These may be written in some instances to strangers provided one gives ample evidence of the bona fide nature of his request and of his integrity.

8. Taking notes is not always enough. At least one additional technique of a visual nature is to take pictures, particularly those which will illustrate distinctive customs, new social developments, group meetings, historic spots, personages. It is important not to intrude on the sensitive feelings of people who are handicapped, suffering in any way, or whose work will be handicapped if photographed. The student traveler, as a rule, establishes a working rapport with persons before photographing them or interviewing them.<sup>5</sup>

9. Above all, the student traveler takes time. He takes as much time as he can command. He keeps his schedule as flexible as possible so as "to stay over" in certain places that prove to be unexpectedly rich in desired opportunities. He avoids the rush-here, rush-there practice of the ordinary tourist. He shuns a killing pace which enables one to cover much ground but see little—to see only the surface of things and to comprehend less.

In making out an itinerary he makes his plans for a week here, a week there, or a month at a time in a given center. He centers his visits at given points from which he makes side trips, at which he rests a day when needed, and from which he moves on when opportunities for studying the new, the old, and the changing are exhausted.

In conclusion, it may be said that travelways as here viewed are ways of study. They are ways that are informal, democratic, and appreciative. They function within the concept of the peoples being members of one human race, as being basically related biologically (of one blood) and culturally (of one basic universal culture pattern). They consider differ-

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<sup>5</sup> While it would be desirable to carry three cameras with appropriate lenses and films, the burden and costs would be heavy. It is ordinarily necessary to choose between a camera that takes a picture  $2\frac{1}{2}$  by  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches in size, one that takes 35 mm. stills, and one that takes 16 mm. motion pictures. The choice usually is made between the second and third types, with both types of photography having distinct advantages.



ences between peoples in terms of their varieties of historical and current psychosocial experiences. They seek to understand peoples by finding the origins and sequences in behavior patterns.

Travelways rely on a priori cultural studies, on a priori studies of current social conditions, and on making contacts with at least a few of the representative leaders in each country visited and many of the rank and file. They involve a measure of careful planning and consistent notetaking, coupled with freedom to change arrangements on short notice. They are centered in key localities, people, and problems.

## PACIFIC SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES

*Brigham Young University.* Dr. Joseph N. Symons has been added to the sociology staff. He formerly taught at Utah State Agricultural College and is a graduate of the University of Chicago. Evin T. Peterson has a one-year appointment in the Sociology Department as instructor. The department is developing plans for a Family Life unit on the campus.

*George Pepperdine College.* The college next year will offer a master of arts degree in social science, planned primarily for those who wish to teach in the secondary schools.

*Los Angeles State College.* Harold Diehl has been appointed associate professor and Richard O. Nahrendorf professor as of September 1953. Joseph Ford gave a paper, "Problems in the Development of Central Business Districts in United States Cities," at the Pacific Sociological Society at Whittier, California, on April 4, 1953. Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, will be teaching a course on Marriage and the Family during the Summer Session of 1953.

*Occidental College.* A laboratory in urban studies was established by this department during the fall semester under the direction of Professor Paul M. Sheldon. The first research project of this laboratory was made possible by a grant from the Haynes Foundation. Dr. Scott Greer has joined the staff as assistant professor of sociology.

*University of Arizona.* Dr. Raymond Mulligan of De Pauw University has accepted a position in the department. Dr. Mulligan replaces Charles Lebeaux, who has returned to the University of Michigan to complete his graduate work. The Bureau of Ethnic Research under the direction of Dr. William H. Kelly has recently published its first annual report under the title "Indians of the Southwest, A Survey of Indian Tribes and Indian Administration of Arizona."

*University of California, Berkeley.* Professor Reinhard Bendix is scheduled to give a paper on "The Legitimation of an Entrepreneurial Class" at the World Congress of Sociology to be held at Liege, Belgium, in August 1953. Professor Kenneth E. Bock has received a faculty fellowship under the Fund for the Advancement of Education to observe the teaching procedures in small classes. Professor Wolfram Eberhard has had a book, *Conquerors and Rulers: Social Forces in Medieval China*, published by E. J. Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.

*University of California, Riverside.* Dr. Charles Woodhouse, acting instructor for the 1952-53 academic year on the Berkeley campus, has

accepted an appointment as instructor in sociology on the Riverside campus beginning January 1954. He was instructor in sociology at Idaho State College from 1950 to 1952.

*University of Southern California.* Books published this year or in process of printing by staff members include: Professors E. S. Bogardus, *Sociology*, 4th Edition (Macmillan); Harvey J. Locke, 2nd Edition (with E. W. Burgess), *The Family* (American Book Company); Edward C. McDonagh (with Eugene Richards), *Ethnic Relations* (Appleton-Century-Crofts); Martin H. Neumeyer, *Social Problems and the Changing Society* (Van Nostrand); John E. Nordskog, *Social Reform Movements* (Scribner's). Graduate students who will receive the Ph.D. degree from the department for the current academic year include Thomas Lasswell, Paul Fisher, William Klausner, Ellen Erchul, Bruce Pringle, and J. Walter Cobb. Dr. Georges Sabagh read a paper on "Differential Fertility and Differential Mortality in Los Angeles" at Asilomar, California, at a Conference on Population Trends on the Pacific Coast, held in May.

*The State College of Washington.* The State College of Washington is cosponsor of the Marriage and Family Life Study tour to northern Europe sponsored annually by Dr. Eugene Link of the State Teachers College of the State University of New York in cooperation with the National Council on Family Relations. Dr. Paul H. Landis of Washington State College is leader of the 1953 tour, which sails from Quebec July 15.

## SOCIAL THEORY

**THE CLAIMS OF SOCIOLOGY: A CRITIQUE OF TEXTBOOKS.** By A. H. Hobbs. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: The Stackpole Company, 1951, pp. iv+185.

Thirty-three introductory texts in sociology, 28 social problem texts, and 22 family texts, published 1926-45, are compared for treatment of certain common subjects, such as personality, marriage and the family, social controls, social disorganization, social change. Criticisms of sociological emphases are made. Judged by textbooks, says the author, sociologists "show little interest in description or in objective analysis of social processes and institutions in society." The authors tend to criticize what they do not like and then posit alternatives which they personally believe "to be more desirable."

**THE PSYCHOLOGY AND PSYCHOTHERAPY OF OTTO RANK.** By Fay B. Karpf. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. ix+129.

Dr. Karpf has performed an excellent service presenting the "essentials of Rank's psychology and psychotherapy" in a concise, clear-cut manner, especially in view of the fact that no such treatise has been available. The sociologist has an interest in this analysis because of Rank's emphases on "the active, positive, integrative aspects of behavior in the sense of active self-expression and control of adjustment," on the ways in which the individual "needs society for his own harmonious development and self-realization," on the "creative impulse" that seems "to stand in direct contrast to the notion of instinctive patterning," on the concepts of "human relationship," "situations," "process," and "role." If Rank could have lived a few years longer, his psychological approach might have become a sociopsychological one of substantial significance, as implied by the author in this important document.

E.S.B.

**INTERPRETING THE LABOR MOVEMENT.** Industrial Relations Research Association, Champaign, Illinois, 1952, pp. xi+207.

This paper-bound publication is a result of the Industrial Relations Research Association's 1950 annual meeting, at which the topic "Theory of the Labor Movement—A Reappraisal" was developed with the resultant realization "that the time had come for a 'new look' " at the labor movement. The old order had undergone some significant alterations during the New Deal era: (1) organized labor's numbers had increased more than fivefold; (2) collective bargaining now determines the conditions of employment in most of the major industries' plants; (3) the right of free organization has now been firmly established in law; (4) and, most significant as a basic factor, the labor movement has been integrated as a large factor in the American culture pattern and plays a role of force in the socioeconomic life of the country. Ten essays are offered, ranging from Philip Taft's "Theories of the Labor Movement" to "International Labor Relations" by David C. Williams. Discussed in the various essays are the structure, ethnic factors, and politics in the labor movement, the nature of union democracy, union policies in the collective bargaining area, and labor politics. Editors Brooks, Derber, McCabe, and Taft have succeeded in fulfilling their prime objective, namely, to stimulate thinking and to afford a chance for a new appraisal of the theory and analysis of the ongoing of the American labor movement.

M.J.V.

**THE QUEST FOR COMMUNITY.** By Robert A. Nisbet. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953, pp. 303.

In some particulars this book may appeal more to the political historian and student of ethics than to the contemporary sociologist. A number of years ago most sociologists would have been vitally concerned with the social and ethical problems examined in this work. The nature of "scientific" sociology seems to delimit the "big" problem into many little problems; hence, the focus is too close for a historical perspective of a general problem. In this book the problem is to trace man's determination to find the "community" in the major areas of life.

It is the author's feeling that the growth of large organizations has created a vacuum in primary types of contacts. Hence, big industries, large universities, and superstates have little concern for personal relations or what might be called the "spirit of the community." Dr. Nisbet believes that in certain ways the TVA came close to meeting the needs of democratic government and administrative decentralization. Added to sheer "bigness" we have the growth of administrative law where there is no review by the courts over policy decisions and interpretations of policy. The "quest" for community seems to be more difficult today than a century ago. The author deserves credit for an ambitious effort to tackle a difficult task.

E.C.M.

**THE NATURE OF CHOICE IN CASEWORK PROCESS.** By Anita J. Fantz. Introduction by Virginia P. Robinson. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1953, pp. vii+141.

The author follows the Otto Rank and Virginia P. Robinson development of thought in this analysis. She denies the popular impression that the social worker's major function in the helping process is to protect the client's natural state of freedom, but develops the idea that the social worker's main function is to help the client "become free to choose." An inner state of freedom has to be achieved by each individual through a long and slow growth process. Sociologically, the author might say that each person tends to get tied down by his biases and prejudices, to become ego-cramped, to be hampered by ideological restrictions, to be limited by pet political, economic, and religious dogmas. The proposals for helping persons to develop a considerable measure of freedom in thought and action have implications and ramifications of a sociological nature which are not touched upon in this succinct treatise of a major aspect of Rankian psychology.

E.S.B.

**THE PRIMITIVE WORLD AND ITS TRANSFORMATIONS.** By Robert Redfield. New York: Cornell University Press, 1953, pp. xiii+185.

In its original form the book consisted of six lectures delivered at Cornell University in 1952 under the title of "The Messenger Lectures on the Evolution of Civilization." The author "considers certain changes that were brought about in mankind by the advent of civilization . . ." and seeks "to understand something of what this change meant generally . . . for humanity . . . slowly changing throughout civilization . . . and then coming of age." The book is most clear in tracing the present to the past and profoundly challenges the mind to think of tomorrow in the light of "the standards of truth and goodness . . . relative to a great historic cultural difference . . . between uncivilized people and civilized people."

RICHARD H. SPEARS

**THE NATURAL SUPERIORITY OF WOMEN.** By Ashley Montague. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 205.

The author, who is chairman of the department of anthropology at Rutgers University, decries the myth of "woman's inferiority to man" and expresses the wish that men will not think he is casting aspersions upon the male sex when he develops some of the reasons why he believes women are superior. Actually, he advocates an attitude of equality of the sexes.

Dr. Montague finds women superior to men in that they are able to be mothers and to develop mother-child relations. It is contended that women are constitutionally stronger than men and far less likely to go insane than are men.

"Woman is the creator and fosterer of life; man has been the mechanizer and destroyer of life." Like all generalizations this one needs modification in a number of ways. It serves the author's purpose, however, of constituting a challenge. The author stresses the significance of the mother-child relationship and asserts that "to the degree to which men approximate in their relationships with their fellow men the love of the mother for her child, to that extent do they move more closely toward the attainment of perfect human relations." He emphasizes the thesis that "it is the function of women to teach men how to be human." The author undoubtedly succeeds in challenging the myth about woman's inferiority, although his generalizations will arouse disagreement because of their sweeping nature. However, he is deliberately writing in general terms and is not referring to particular men or to particular women.

E.S.B.



**PATHS OF LONELINESS. *The Individual Isolated in Society.*** By Margaret Mary Wood. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, pp. x+250.

The book is divided into two parts: the first part, consisting of seven chapters, deals with "the forces in society which tend to isolate one man from another"; the second part, of five chapters, "analyzes some of the ways in which lonely individuals react, either consciously or unconsciously, to the isolating process in their efforts to relate themselves to others. In the first part attention is paid to the barriers between the sexes, to the differences between the generations, to the isolating nature of unemployment, to the ways in which greatness isolates, to the distance-creating effects of breaking social and legal codes. In the second part the author deals with the explorer and wanderer, the egotist, the authoritarian escapist, the person who would destroy the reputation of others.

The author concludes that "it is a responsibility of the group to assist the isolated individual to establish relationships which will satisfy his emotional needs for recognition, response, and the sense of security which comes from the feeling that one belongs to the group." Moreover, the individual must do his part by actively cooperating. Dr. Wood is to be congratulated upon making a new and stimulating contribution to sociological literature.

E.S.B.

**SOCIOLOGY, THE SCIENCE OF SOCIETY.** By Jay Rumney and Joseph Maier. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. vii+192.

The first edition of this book was published in England fifteen years ago. It has been re-edited, enlarged somewhat, and the bibliography has been revised. It deals with values as facts and with facts as values. Some of the chapter headings are the following: environment, human nature and history, race and biological sociology; group institutions and culture; the class structure; worship, school, and play; the development of sociology. The treatment of these themes is brief, as indicated by the limited size of the book.

**SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STUDIES. Vol. 1, No. 1.** University College of the West Indies, British West Indies: Institute of Social and Economic Research, February 1953.

This new publication makes a splendid initial appearance. It deals with family organization in British Guiana, Urban Research in the Caribbean, and related topics. Its primary field is that of community studies in the main English-speaking units of the Caribbean.

**SOLITUDE AND PRIVACY.** *A Study of Social Isolation, Its Causes and Therapy.* By Paul Halmos. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. xvii+179.

This book approaches human life with the assumption that man's social belonging and his solitariness are central issues. The author, a social psychologist, bases the book on an experiment with 324 full-time college students in London to determine, first, what traits of personality facilitate and what traits hinder social contacts, and, second, how the extent and frequency of social contacts are socially helpful or harmful. Questionnaires were used and statistical techniques were applied to the data. The results are, in general, inconclusive, but they indicate several points for further investigation. They tend to indicate that "a poor social participation is generally associated with" anxiety and to a degree with depression, but this does not necessarily mean that isolation is caused by anxiety and depression. Isolation and anxiety appear to interact, each aggravating the other, but both are judged to have their sources in the social conditions wherein they are expressed.

The author supplements this research with discussions of desocialization, the ideology of privacy and reserve, social reform, and community therapy. The sociologist and the group therapist are viewed as being complementary. The function of the former is analytic and diagnostic; of the latter, that of prescribing and assigning validity to procedures.

WOODROW W. SCOTT

**THE COOPERATIVE ROAD TO ABUNDANCE.** *The Alternative to Monopolism and Communism.* By E. R. Bowen. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. xii+169.

Having been engaged in business a number of years and having served later as executive secretary of The Cooperative League of the United States of America, the author has a wide range of firsthand knowledge of the subject of which he writes. In recent years he has devoted considerable time to the study of books and articles dealing with various aspects of economic and social life and organization. From all these bases he has proceeded in this book to treat such subjects as motives of a cooperative economy, road to abundance for all democracy's unfinished task, ethical roots of cooperation, scientific basis of cooperation.

The author defines the motives of a cooperative economy in terms of social freedom and political liberty, social justice and political equality, social brotherhood and political fraternity. He sums these terms up in the economic motives of opportunity, security, and partnership. He finds that

many people are confused by the "front" organizations of "monopoly-capitalism" with their use of liberty, freedom, the Constitution, and religious titles. He argues for the second of the three following methods of economic action — competition, cooperation, and compulsion — and suggests that the democratic processes of discussion and decision and of trial and error be applied to all three in order to find out which is best fitted to carry on economic functions. In repudiating compulsion by both Communists and Fascists, he marshals a wide array of arguments in support of cooperation as compared with competition and in behalf of an economy of abundance as compared with an economy of scarcity.

E.S.B.

## PEOPLES AND CULTURE

**AFRICA, A STUDY IN TROPICAL DEVELOPMENT.** By L. Dudley Stamp.  
New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1953, pp. vii+568.

Sociology and human ecology students who are interested in human relationships in Africa will find this work of unusual merit. The author, who is professor of social geography in the University of London, has presented a very detailed picture of "the lay of the land" and of the natural resources of every region in Africa. Important data concerning the population, production, and trade of each region are given.

**AMERICA'S ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS.** By A. Hyatt and Ruth Verrill.  
New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1953, pp. xvi+334.

The reader is impressed by the wide variety of detailed information that the book reports concerning the Aztec, Mayan, and Inca civilizations. The antiquity of structures built by these ancient peoples is significant, and the degree to which each of them has developed the arts, social organizations, religious ceremonies, and so on reveals considerable ability. Despite all the countless discoveries made by archaeologists, the known characteristics of these early Americans almost pale into insignificance when compared with the unknown factors. Many unanswered questions are raised as: How may the similarities of the ancient Peruvians and the Sumerians be explained? Did some of the first Americans come from Europe by way of the Atlantic and some by the Aleutians and Behring Strait? A large number of photographs enhance the interest the authors have generated in the early peoples of the Western Hemisphere. E.S.B.

**YIVO ANNUAL OF JEWISH SOCIAL SCIENCE. Volume VII. Edited by Kappel S. Pinson. New York: Yiddish Scientific Institute-Yivo, 1952, pp. 304.**

This miscellaneous collection of essays and research articles deals with specific situations involving Jews in various parts of the world. One research paper of widespread interest is that on "The Jewish Stereotype, the Jewish Personality, and Jewish Prejudice" by Dorothy Tilden Spoerl.

**FROM SAVAGERY TO CIVILIZATION. By Grahame Clarke. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. vi+116.**

Man has reached "his present status through the medium of his culture," but beneath "the veneer of civilization there lurks the barbarian," the savage, and, still lower, "a solid core of animal appetite." Man has developed an advancing technology, but "the capacity to destroy has grown as rapidly as the ability to build," and today people are "menaced as never before by the products of human ingenuity and skill." The prize of civilization is "success in war."

**THE PRIMITIVE CITY OF TIMBUCTOO. By Horace Miner. Princeton: Princeton University Press and American Philosophical Society, 1953, pp. xx+297.**

In making this postdoctoral study in 1940 the author and his wife spent seven months in Timbuctoo. They made an extensive investigation of the life and customs in this primitive city of about 6,000 inhabitants. The people have been affected little by Western civilization, although under French rule. The city is about a mile square and its people pattern their lives after three distinct heritages, namely, Arab, Songhoi, and Bela. The two last-mentioned types are mixtures of Caucasoid and Negroid peoples. Commerce has functioned for centuries in keeping the members of this primitive city together.

Important chapters are those dealing with kinship and the family, mating, the Islamic religion, fetishism, elementary economic patterns, patterns of conflict. Life in Timbuctoo is harsh, the temperature is high, resources are few, stealing is rife, culture is heterogeneous, and social life is at a standstill. The author presents materials valuable for comparable purposes in the sociological and anthropological fields. Much of these materials has not previously been printed or available. E.S.B.

**RACIAL AND CULTURAL MINORITIES: AN ANALYSIS OF PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION.** By George E. Simpson and J. Milton Yinger. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953, pp. x+773.

In Part I the causes and consequences of prejudice and discrimination are treated at length. The effects of prejudice on minority group members and on prejudiced persons and dominant groups are especially well handled. A case study of anti-Semitism from both a sociological and a social-psychological viewpoint is made.

Part II presents the role of minority groups in relation to social stratification, to economic, political, legal, and religious aspects of life in the United States. Intermarriage problems are briefly considered. The importance of the education of racial and cultural minorities in the United States is emphasized.

Two important chapters (Part III) deal with "the reduction of prejudice and discrimination," involving both the prejudiced person and the prejudiced social situation which accounts to a degree for the prejudices of many persons. The book is concluded with a discussion of the need for research in connection with the multiple causation and the interdependence of variables in race relations. The importance of indirectness in securing changes in prejudiced persons and situations is well placed.

E.S.B.

**SOCIAL EVOLUTION.** By V. Gordon Childe. New York: Henry Schuman, 1951, pp. 194.

After describing cultural sequences in Temperate Europe, the Mediterranean Zone, the Nile Valley, the Mesopotamia, the author concludes that "to survive at all any culture must be fairly well adapted to its specific environment," and that the evidence does not support specific parallelism in culture evolution.

**SKOAL SCANDINAVIA.** By Edward Streeter. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953, pp. xiii+238.

This is an account of four Americans who traveled by automobile from Oslo northward to Bergen and Trondheim, thence to Sweden, Stockholm, Visby, Copenhagen, and other points in Denmark. The author describes the beautiful scenery, places in which to eat, and local customs and conventions.

**CASTE IN MODERN CEYLON.** By Bryce Ryan. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1953, pp. 371.

This splendid book is the result of four years of field research into the meaning, history, and present trends in caste relations in Ceylon. It is observed that in Ceylon caste is a matter of family endogamy, and not religious belief as in India. For the most part caste is maintained by family traditions and preferences rather than by legal compulsions. Ryan shows that in Ceylon there are castes that roughly approximate occupations; however, there is no effort to elaborate the system into myriad subcastes. Status within a caste is a measure of the "goodness" of a family name, not a subcaste status. Westerners will be interested to know that the size of caste and high status vary inversely with each other. As might be expected, the Goyigama caste are "cultivators of the soil" or the landed gentry. The greatest flexibility in caste relations appears in the urban areas, especially in Colombo. The urban area represents too many conflicts in basic cultural patterns for the literal survival of village castes. More studies are needed to determine what aspects of caste relations change under the impact of urbanism. Professor Ryan has performed a necessary task in helping Westerners appreciate the varied relationships that may be structured by the operation of a caste system.

E.C.M.

**ASIA AND THE WEST.** By Maurice Zinkin. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1953, pp. xii+304.

Out of firsthand experience in India and elsewhere in the East, the author discusses the "economic and social upsurge" in several Asian countries. The problems of overpopulation and the impact of the West on the East are discussed. The West gave the East the impression that its poverty could be overcome and also new ideas of liberty of the individual and of progress. The East could not understand why the West "so materialist and so crude, so given to chewing-gum, to loud talk and freedom of behavior towards women, should also be so prosperous and so able to impose its concepts on a not altogether willing world" (p. 89).

The author takes up the situation in one country after another—Korea, India, Burma, China, Java, Manchukuo, Malaya, the Philippines, Thailand, and Japan. In India the author finds that the struggle is between the left, which wishes to change without violence, and the "further left," which wishes "to do everything forcibly and at once." In general, the author proposes industrialization as a solution. His argument is well supported, but doubtless there are basic psychosocial factors to be considered at length too.

E.S.B.



## SOCIAL WELFARE

**MAJOR CAMPAIGN SPEECHES OF ADLAI E. STEVENSON, 1952.** New York: Random House, 1953, pp. xxxi+320.

Here is a set of campaign speeches that will make interesting material for social-psychological analyses. These fifty speeches, delivered chiefly in a period of nine weeks in different parts of the United States and giving proposals on one main issue after another before the American people, comprise source materials of significance in the field of political sociology. They constitute a sheaf of documents indicating what a candidate for the Presidency has in mind when, as he repeatedly says, he is "talking sense" to his fellow countrymen.

**WORKING WIVES AND MOTHERS.** By Stella B. Applebaum. New York: Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 188, 1952, pp. 32.

The author discusses in a popular vein such topics as work of women workers, women workers as wives, women workers as mothers, what is ahead for married women.

**CONSUMERS PROBLEMS.** By Arch W. Troelstrup. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952, pp. xv+458.

This book is the product of nearly twenty-five years of teaching the subject at Stephens College in addition to the contributions of some four hundred graduates who described their most important consumer problems after marriage. As a result, Dr. Troelstrup has contributed a most meaningful and helpful text which should be of great value to all teachers of family life courses. After a preliminary chapter on Money Management for College Students come chapters on Money and Marital Happiness, Money Planning to Fit the Family, Democracy in Home Management, Intelligent Consumer Choice, Food Shopping Begins at Home, Food Shopping in the Market, Solving the Family Clothing Problem, Wise Shopping for Clothing, Deciding to Rent, Buy or Build a Home, Buying Good Health through Medical Services, and others dealing with Savings, Investments, Credit, Taxes, Consumer Protection, and Improving Consumer Welfare. The figures are up to date, and many case problems are presented to illustrate the author's point of view. Graphs, figures, and charts make the book even more interesting. This book meets an important need and is a valuable addition to the literature on family life.

J.A.P.

**A SOCIAL PROGRAM FOR OLDER PEOPLE.** By Jerome Kaplan. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1953, pp. xiii+158.

The author, who is a group work consultant for the Hennepin County Welfare Board (Minnesota), states that "our society is today faced with the problem of keeping a large share of its population from joining the living dead—those whose minds are allowed to die before their bodies do." He gives attention to "the less tangible needs of the senior citizen," namely, the needs for companionship, for creative activities, for joy in living, but he begins with economic problems that the senior citizen faces. He carries out his undertaking with imagination, empathy, and a wealth of concrete suggestions that have been proved important in actual experience.

E.S.B.

**THE UNEDUCATED.** By Eli Ginzberg and Douglas W. Bray. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, pp. xiii+246.

The publication emerged from the work of the Conservation of Human Resources Project, established in 1950 by President Eisenhower at the Graduate School of Business of Columbia University. The report is divided into three parts: "Education and Society," "Military and Civilian Performance," and "Human Resources Policy." Human resources are important, but our World War II experience revealed that five million out of eighteen million men examined for military service were rejected as unsuitable because of a physical, mental, or moral disability; and about 500,000 of the million and a half of the men examined following the outbreak of hostilities in Korea were rejected for the same reasons.

Although it is difficult to make comparative studies of illiteracy and average schooling over a period of time, yet the available statistics give some approximation. During the fifty-year period from 1890 to 1940 illiteracy in the United States was reduced from 13.3 per cent to 2.9 per cent of the total population. The rates of illiteracy vary considerably by nativity and racial groups, by regions, and by occupational groups. During World War II the armed forces established Special Training Units to give the minimum of training for more than 300,000 men, of whom about 85 per cent entered the main stream of the Army for training and assignment. This training program not only helped these men while in the armed services but assisted many to make a more adequate adjustment to civilian life after the war, especially in their employment.

The fact that in 1947 about seventy million persons were living in homes other than the ones in which they lived in 1940 is indicative of the high mobility of the population. The uneducated migrants have the greatest difficulty in finding employment and making adjustments to the new environment.

The report emphasizes that "it is no longer possible for our democracy to remain strong unless the citizenry is able and willing to inform itself about many issues for transcending local issues." The experience in the armed forces has pointed to the ways of helping the illiterate and poorly educated people. With this in mind, the report recommends ways in which the Federal government can attack illiteracy at its most acute sources.

M.H.N.

**WORLD IN THE MAKING.** *The Story of International Cooperation.* By James A. Joyce. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. 159.

In straightforward, simple language the author depicts in a few written strokes the rise of mankind from preliterate days through experimentation in living together to the present struggle by dissident nations with the problems of working together toward some kind of satisfactory world organization of activities. Maps, diagrams, drawings, photographs, and questions for discussions add to the interest aroused by this rapid sketch of human development.

**FARMERS OF THE FUTURE.** *Prospects and Policies for Establishing a New Generation on the Land. A Symposium.* New York: Teachers College, 1953, pp. 85.

In this report of a Columbia University Seminar on Rural Life several scholars discuss a variety of topics, such as rural population trends, changes in farm technology, changing patterns of rural organization. Dr. Edmund de S. Brunner gives favorable reactions to "familism in farming," or the continued farming of given farms by more than one family generation. On the subject of "Cooperation and the Farmer of the Future," V. J. Tereshtenko describes cooperatives "as a form of enterprise which reconciles business and social relations" and as possibly being able to inject into international economic relations a new sense "of social justice and ethical and moral values." The history of cooperatives in the United States is traced back to the first one, founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1752 in Philadelphia. Agricultural cooperatives in particular, numbering over 10,000, are described as having been firmly established "as a part of the country's economic system."

E.S.B.

**THE SEX PARADOX.** By Isabel Drummond. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1953, pp. x+369.

Isabel Drummond is a Philadelphia lawyer and a product of the University of Michigan and of the University of Pennsylvania Law School. This book is based on insights gained from over 150 interviews with judges, penologists, psychiatrists, psychologists, lawyers, prison executives, and social service workers. What the author means by the title of the book is not quite clear. In some instances she indicates that it refers to the cultural lag between legal statutes and dynamic behavior, but, on the other hand, she concludes that there is almost no consensus on the issues involved in the causation, prognosis, and legal handling of sex offenses. While the "paradox" is not clarified for the reader, the problems involved in various sexual deviations are strikingly and significantly described. The author discusses sex-motivated murder, rape and incest, sodomy, exhibitionism, juvenile sexual delinquency, prostitution, abduction, seduction, obscenity and defamation, and certain civil and criminal wrongs associated with marriage. The extensive bibliography and an appendix which summarizes the laws of all the states on all of these matters are most useful. Although Miss Drummond is a lawyer, she has employed very little legal terminology in her writing. The book will be of value to psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and marriage counselors, particularly as an incentive to further research. J.A.P.

**EFFECTIVE USE OF OLDER WORKERS.** By Elizabeth L. Breckinridge. Chicago: Wilcox and Follett Company, 1953, pp. xiv+224.

In this study of what 176 corporations are doing about the retirement of employees, a great many interesting points and suggestions are made. The thesis of the study is that "we cannot surrender our faith in work as a guarantee of personal independence." The role of employment of some kind for persons 65 and over is strongly emphasized. To turn loose half a million persons a year in the United States with nothing to do is "a great mistake." An extreme position is represented by one older person who said that "retirement is murder." Arguments for and against a fixed retirement age are given. Considerable emphasis is being given today to preparing older workers for retirement and to the creation of counseling services by employers for the retired and for those about to retire regarding the six most common problems of retired persons: (1) health, (2) finances, (3) work, (4) avocations, (5) living conditions, and (6) companionship.

E.S.B.

**EDUCATION IN A TECHNOLOGICAL SOCIETY.** *Tensions and Technology Series.* Paris, France: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1952, pp. 73.

This is the report of the UNESCO Committee that studied the methods employed by member states for developing their educational systems to meet their technological needs. Being concerned with the need for technically educated people in the future, the committee investigated the problems of an educational shift from the "know about" to the "know how" without destroying the spiritual and cultural needs of the whole man. The report is clear and presents a challenge from the future to the present.

RICHARD H. SPEARS

*University of Southern California*

**THE LOCAL UNION. ITS PLACE IN THE INDUSTRIAL PLANT.**

By Leonard R. Sayles and George Strauss. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953, pp. xv+269.

Unions "at the local level" are the focal points of this study, which brought the authors a \$500-bond prize given by the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues. Individual field studies of twenty local unions in four northeastern communities contributed the materials presented. Ten of the locals were affiliated with the CIO, nine with the AFL, and one was an independent union. The industries represented by these embraced such diversities as automotive assembly, basic and fabricated steel, utilities, men's and women's clothing, chemicals, and printing. Methods employed by the investigators consisted of observation, interviewing, projective testing, and documentary data analysis. The most significant aspect of the study was the light thrown upon the attitudes of the unionists toward their own locals and their officers, their work, their union meetings, and their grievances. As might be expected, union officers have serious problems facing them at times, such as the seniority problem which gives rise to the dynamics of group conflict, or group pressures which often interfere with desirable and harmonious union-management relationships. Some conclusions reached are: (1) most of the unions were essentially democratic in nature, despite the apathy of the membership and the consequent concentration of power in their leaders; (2) unions have a good influence upon communities; and (3) opportunity for expression by the members in union meetings may be considered important for the American way of life. The authors modestly state that their work has been mainly exploratory, but they hope that their conclusions may have some validity.

M.J.V.

**SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND THE CHANGING SOCIETY.** By Martin H. Neumeyer. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1953, pp. ix+477.

This stimulating book has a threefold aim, as is shown by its three major divisions. Part I seeks to analyze the nature of social problems and show how they emerge from the social disorganization (relative in degree) caused by social change. Part II deals with ten specific social problems that are considered typical. Most of these (treating such subjects as population, family, industrial relations, crime, etc.) are familiar topics in such texts, for they are critical foci of social conflicts that endanger the well-being of society. Part III turns to the broad policies of social control and planning by which society seeks to curb the sharper tendencies of social disorganization and to channel potentially destructive, disorganizing energy and activity into constructive, cooperative forms of social effort.

The organization of the book is clear-cut and the treatment of its topics is orderly and direct. The wealth of book references—but without undue quotations—shows wide familiarity with the literature of the field. For some reason there are very few journal references, though the ones used are well selected. The author's style is clear and forceful, never sacrificing simplicity and clarity for the "ponderous profundity" which some writers affect. Best of all, the book is not merely a compilation of *facts* on social problems; the thread of theoretical analysis is continuous throughout the work, keeping it truly sociological.

Writing a book on social problems is a very difficult task; the question of selection in so wide a field is almost enough to dismay one. Neumeyer, however, has done a very creditable job in producing an interesting and well-balanced text.

RAY E. BABER

*Pomona College*

**COOPERATORS' YEAR BOOK, 1953.** Edited by Arthur Jupp and Alfred P. Perkins. Leicester, England: Cooperative Productive Federation, Ltd., 1953, pp. 112.

In a small compass the editors have packed a surprising amount of facts about the cooperative production movement. Leading authorities, such as J. A. Hough, N. Barou, J. M. Wood, and H. Taylor present pertinent data concerning cooperative production by the cooperative wholesales, the cooperative regionals and retail societies, and the cooperative copartnership societies.

J. W. Ames of the Swedish Kooperativ Forbundet explains the activities of KF in Sweden. He states that wherever monopoly engages in



price fixing at the consumers' expense, KF (1) asks for more favorable buying terms, (2) publishes the facts in its and other newspapers, and (3) if these methods do not bring about needed results, KF lays plans for manufacturing the article whose price is judged to be too high, and in this way cooperative production reinstates free competition into the free enterprise system, makes antitrust legislation and government controls unnecessary, and brings about fair prices. E.S.B.

**ENCYCLOPEDIA OF ABERRATIONS.** By Edward Podolsky, M.D., et al.  
New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. ix+550.

This work is a compilation of articles by some fifty-nine outstanding psychological and psychiatric representatives of the psychoanalytic school. These articles cover, in differing degrees of thoroughness most of the recognized types of aberrations. The material is arranged for easy reference in alphabetical order rather than in relationship to aberrational types. Sociologists will find special interest in the fact that articles dealing with drug addiction, alcoholic addiction, and various types of criminal behavior are treated as types of character aberrations, while anti-Semitism and anti-Negroism are discussed as types of social aberrations. Although it is impossible to catalogue all recognized aberrations, the reviewer felt that in certain cases some obvious general interests were omitted. It would seem, for instance, that impotence and its psychodynamics would have had more general relevancy to most readers than a syndrome labeled "Nuns' Melancholy," to which was devoted eight pages. J.A.P.

**NATIONALIZATION IN PRACTICE: THE BRITISH COAL INDUSTRY.**  
By William W. Hannes. Boston: Harvard University, 1953, pp. xviii+413.

The author, who is visiting associate professor of business administration at the University of California, bases his report on firsthand impartial studies of the British coal industry. The author concludes that five years of nationalization is too short a period for a social movement to demonstrate its possibilities or to determine what the final outcome will be.

The author is sure that nationalization of the coal industry has not produced the revolution that the Labor party predicted. On the other hand, "nationalization has brought none of the disasters expected of it" by its opponents. Moreover, if the coal industry had been left under

private ownership, "the output would have been no higher and quite likely lower," while "prices of coal would have been as high, and more probably higher," and "the basic problems of the industry would have been as great if not greater." On this basis, "nationalization of the coal industry may be considered a success, but not an overwhelming one." It has not created the sense of participation by the workers that was anticipated, and the distance between top management and the miners has not yet been bridged. The author's final conclusion is: "If the experience of the British coal industry is any test, nationalization is not the Utopia the socialists have been seeking nor is it the destructive revolutionary force the conservatives fear." The book impresses one as being thorough as far as it goes and objective minded. E.S.B.

**CHRISTIAN SOCIAL CONSCIOUSNESS.** By A. D. Mattson. Rock Island, Illinois: Augustana Book Concern, 1953, pp. ix+267.

Written chiefly for the use of students of religion and for pastors, the book discusses such topics as standards of evaluation, attitudes in the churches, the church and labor movement, the church and rural life, church and state.

**THE ENGLISH VILLAGE.** By W. P. Baker. London and New York: Oxford University Press, 1953, pp. 224.

The author emphasizes salient points regarding the "ten thousand villages in England and all [are] different." They function between the hamlet on one side and the town on the other. There are agricultural villages, fishing villages, mining villages, industrial villages, and villages grouped together. Special emphasis is given to occupations of villagers, the church in the village, education in the village, and the contributions that the villages are giving and might give to the nation.

**WELLSPRINGS OF DEMOCRACY. Guidance for Local Societies.** By John M. Brewer. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952, pp. xii+232.

In this book the late Dr. Brewer succeeded in presenting in detail the essentials needed by a local group in conducting its meetings democratically. Eight characteristics of democracy are outlined, and twenty-one common mistakes of executive leaders are given. Among the major topics treated are: how committees work, how the executive serves the society, election of officers, parliamentary rules. The organization of groups and democratic procedures are stressed rather than group dynamics.

**COMMUNITY WELFARE ORGANIZATION.** By Herbert Hewitt Stroup.  
New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952, pp. xv+612.

Although the book is concerned chiefly with the social welfare aspects of community organization, the author believes that community welfare organization must be analyzed within the framework of the social sciences. Consequently, the reader will find that numerous references are made throughout to knowledge and methods that have been employed in the social sciences and other disciplines. Part one is designed to orient the student to the community, its nature and history. The community is thought of as both a geographic-legal and a sociopsychological entity. Various historical examples of the community are described, including the modern city, the larger and smaller communities, and the ideal community. This provides a basis for an understanding of the nature of community welfare organization in its more formal as well as general aspects.

Parts two and three deal with the "structure" and "process" of community welfare organization. Its "structure" may consist of formally organized agencies or informally organized groups, but the emphasis in the book is placed on those structures which are relatively formalized. In this connection, descriptions and illustrations are given of the various levels or areas of organization—local, state and regional, national and international. The processes of community welfare organization include the coordination of welfare activities, the financing of welfare enterprises, the public relations aspects of social work, the methods of appraising community needs and resources, welfare planning on a community basis, and the initiation of welfare services. The combination of analysis of the organization processes and of concrete examples and illustrations of community welfare undertakings makes this book a valuable source of information for both the social scientists and the social worker.

M.H.N.

**SOME OBSERVATIONS ON EXECUTIVE RETIREMENT.** By Harold R. Hall. Boston: Harvard University, 1953, pp. xiv+198.

In interviewing 592 business executives between 35 years and 50 years of age, it was found that most of them were looking forward to retirement in the distant future. But of the older executives who were approaching retirement it was found that 75 per cent resisted the idea of retirement.

Three major problems of business executives are discussed at length. (1) How shall the retired man make his financial adjustment, especially when his retirement allowance is only one fifth or one seventh of his former salary? (2) How shall he make activity adjustments when he is no longer wanted at the office, when he has few or no hobbies, and when his wife doesn't want him sitting more or less idly about the house every day? (3) Where shall he live when he can no longer maintain the residence of his active years? These questions together with many secondary ones are treated at length. The author concludes his discussion of "well-planned programs for retirement" with the expression of the hope that the need for such plans will be increasingly appreciated and that the plans will result in "increased longevity and gradual improvement in the well-being of elderly people." College professors including sociologists will find special interest in perusing this book.

E.S.B.

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# Sociology and Social Research

## AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL



### *Articles in Forthcoming Issues . . .*

September-October 1953 and later

|  |                               |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Social Distance within a Religious Group ..... | LEE ROY JUST                  |
| The Core of Juvenile Delinquency .....         | CHARLES J. BROWNING           |
| Stone-Age Culture of Mayas .....               | RAY W. BABER                  |
| Leadership Roles in Labor Unions .....         | GEORGE STRAUSS ET AL.         |
| Interethnic Accommodation .....                | THOMAS F. HOULT               |
| Mexicans at Play—A Revolution .....            | NORMAN S. HAYNER              |
| Four Programs for Democracy .....              | FRANK T. CARLTON              |
| Race Problems in American Negro Poetry .....   | CECIL E. LARSEN               |
| Predicting Adjustment in Old Age .....         | JU-SHU PAN                    |
| Primary Group in Mass Communication .....      | JOSEPH B. FORD                |
| Time Series in Population Forecasting .....    | ROBERT C. SCHMITT             |
| Negro in the United States Army .....          | ROBERT J. DWYER               |
| Ethnic Attitudes in Arab Near East ....        | E. T. PROTHRO AND L. MELIKIAN |
| Assessment of Marriage Adjustment .....        | R. M. FRUMKIN                 |
| The Concept of Sociopathy .....                | READ BAIN                     |
| Sociology and Social Planning .....            | BESSIE A. MCCLENAHAN          |
| Popular Meaning of Class Designation .....     | ARNOLD M. ROSE                |
| Cooperative Movement in Israel .....           | H. VITELES                    |
| Social Distance and Eta Class of Japan ....    | H. H. SMYTHE AND S. KONO      |
| The Roles of an American Rabbi .....           | SIDNEY I. GOLDSTEIN           |

### *Articles in Preceding Issue . . .*

May-June 1953

|  |                   |
|--|-------------------|
| Panic Theory .....                                 | PAUL B. FOREMAN   |
| Radio and Television Programs .....                | HARUKO OHARA      |
| Leadership and Adjustment in Old Age .....         | DAVID O. MOBERG   |
| The Work of Sociology I Students .....             | MARGARET EAGER    |
| Population Density and Psychiatric Diagnosis ..... | HERMAN R. LANTZ   |
| Migration and City Population .....                | ROBERT C. SCHMITT |
| Cooperative Housing in Eastern Canada .....        | EMORY S. BOGARDUS |